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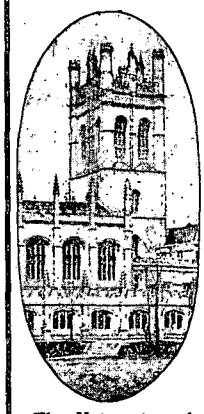

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 21, 1910.

The Week.

"The vice of every tariff bill comes from the ease with which the well-informed special interests can hoodwink legislators who do not know the facts"—thus Mr. Seth Low, at the Republican Club in New York on Monday night. Oh, no, Mr. Low. The protected interests do not have to hoodwink the legislators. The latter do not wish, and never have wished, the facts. Their business is buying and selling—buying campaign contributions and political influence by the sale of the privilege to grow rich by aid of the government of all the people of the United States. The Ways and Means Committees or special commissions have often enough collected facts—has Mr. Low forgotten the Tariff Commission of 1882, and what came of it?—only to see them discarded unread when the tariff hogs came to the trough. The Republican leaders were not easily hoodwinked about things political; but the only fact Mr. Low's party cares about at such times is the size of the bids for government aid in making profits. The Tariff Commission now devised is a very useful body, beyond doubt. But nothing on earth will make the protected interests pay any attention to its facts, and to date they have been the masters of the Republican party. As matters now stand, those likely to profit most by the Tariff Commission's labors are tariff reformers or free-traders of the radical stripe. Every protectionist will pull every wire to suppress the damnable facts sure to come out.

An interesting contribution has been made to the discussion of the income-tax amendment to the Constitution of the United States, in the memorandum submitted to the New York Legislature by Joseph H. Choate, William D. Guthrie, Victor Morawetz, Austen G. Fox, and John G. Milburn, and in the partly concurrent and partly divergent memorandum by Francis Lynde Stetson, appended to the former. A sharp distinction should be made between two aspects of the opinion declared by the five eminent lawyers first mentioned. On the issue raised by Gov. Hughes, referring to the Constitutional and political effect of the words "from whatever source derived," the pronouncement made in the memorandum is not only characterized by the legal weight which might be expected from its authorship, but is highly impressive from the point of view of the layman. Indeed, ever since the announcement of the Governor's opinion on this point, the discussion of it has brought out with more and more clearness the soundness of his position—that the authorization, by Constitutional amendment, of Federal taxation of incomes "from whatever source derived" would almost certainly have the effect of annulling those limitations on the taxing power of the national government which have hitherto rested on inference from the general principles underlying our system of federated States. And this memorandum serves not only further to enforce this point, but also to bring out its potential importance in the affairs of the future.

But the memorandum of the five lawyers does not stop here: it goes on to attack the principle of the income-tax amendment, irrespective of its effect on State obligations. Here it enters upon the domain of general statesmanship, and takes up a position with which the legal authority of the writers has no bearing. They assert that to do away with the necessity of the apportionment of an income tax among the States according to population would be to open the door to a conscienceless exploitation of the richer States by the poorer States. That the amendment is designed to enable the national government to obtain from the possessors of great wealth and consequently large income a greater contribution to the national expenses than they now make, is undeniable; and that if this were done most of the tax would come from the States in which there is most wealth is equally certain. It is even possible that the power, if it existed, would be used in a manner that is open to serious objection. But when the eminent lawyers say that if a direct tax were now levied and apportioned according to population, the more populous and richer States would be paying their full share of national taxes, they weaken their whole position. Whatever the merits of their case, it is certainly not advanced by an argument which could justly be reduced to a burlesque by applying a similar consideration to a tax levied on the various sections of New York State, or New York city, according to population. Mr. Stetson, on the other hand, while recognizing the full force of the objection based on the words "from whatever source derived," and while admitting the possibility of abuse in any event, rightly asserts that an income tax apportioned by population is out of the question, and expresses his readiness to approve an amendment not open to the objection made by Gov. Hughes.

It is well to have men like ex-Gov. Herrick of Ohio who are prominent in the business world lay emphasis upon the waste and extravagance in the conduct of the government's business, if only that it may stimulate the Administration at Washington to greater efforts in this direction. There lie laurels enough for any President, even if you cut in half Senator Aldrich's estimate that the government, if run as a private corporation, might save $300,000,000. A government never can be run like a private business, because it is a Trust and has no competition; but an enormous amount could be saved if business methods were employed. Thus, in one office in Washington the installation of adding machines has saved the salaries of seventy clerks. In the Treasury Department, Secretary MacVeagh is busily making savings and adopting modern methods. But nothing is done in the War or Navy Departments, where much of the greatest waste goes on. The savings that could be made in the Quartermaster's Department of the army alone would make Mr. MacVeagh's notable economies seem comparatively trifling.

Anything more outrageous than the pardoning of Col. Duncan Cooper, one of the murderers of ex-Senator Carmack of Tennessee, has not occurred in many a month. The Supreme Court of Tennessee had just affirmed Col. Cooper's sentence of twenty years, when the Gov-

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ernor instantly pardoned him. This brings both the law and the Supreme Court into contempt, and is from every point of view a disgrace to the State. The Governor says he has read all the evidence; that, in his opinion, neither of the defendants is guilty, and therefore as far as possible he annuls the action of the Supreme Court. He thus asserts that the Supreme Court judges are not as good jurists as he, or that they have deliberately connived at a miscarriage of justice. This is interference with a coördinate branch of the Government, with a vengeance. Moreover, in the matter of Col. Cooper's son, for whom a new trial had been ordered, the Governor prejudges the case by asserting this man's complete innocence. As to the case itself, there never was a clearer one. Carmack was brutally shot down in the street—as brutally as was Stanford White by Harry Thaw. The Governor's action will stimulate the gentle Southern pastime of shooting editors, and will generally be used for decades to come as an excuse for lynchings and private vengeance.

We congratulate the Delaware, Lackawanna and Western Railroad on its decision to submit to arbitration the differences between management and men. It is an evidence of great confidence on its part in the integrity and judgment of the arbitrators in the case of the New York Central that the Lackawanna Company should be willing to adopt and abide by their ruling in that case. However truly it may be asserted that this decision on the part of the company is really a victory for the men—gained, it may also be said, only when the strike menace had grown into an actual strike order—it is a hopeful sign, nevertheless, that this powerful company should adopt the sensible plan of arbitration, rather than the obdurate and atavistic method of strike and lockout. It would be difficult at this time to judge of the merits of the demands that the employees of this railroad have made, although it would seem that they were justified in asking that which the employees of other roads have recently gained, either through their own initiative or by the voluntary action of the management. The significant point, however, is not the justice or the lack of justice of their demands, but the manner in which those demands are to be met—by discussion, by examination of the claims of both sides, and by a calm decision.

Following up its excellent action in cutting down the amount of Sunday labor in its various plants, the United States Steel Corporation has taken another noteworthy step forward by instituting a voluntary "employers' liability relief system" for its workmen. The payments the Corporation plans to make will be quite irrespective of its legal liability. During temporary disablement single men will receive 35 per cent. of their wages and married men 50 per cent., with an additional 5 per cent. for each child under sixteen and 2 per cent. for each year of service above five years. In case of death of the wage-earner the widow and children will receive one and one-half years' wages, with an additional 10 per cent. for each child under sixteen and 3 per cent. for each year of service of the deceased above five years. The Corporation announces that for some years past it has been paying more than a million dollars a year to injured employees and to their families. Its new scheme will be tried for a year to see how it works, and the Corporation announces that "it is our purpose by this plan to treat employees fairly and generously, even under the most enlightened view of the employer's responsibility." It also announces that it has under consideration the pensioning of disabled or superannuated employees.

New Zealand frozen mutton is no longer a mere possibility for New York. This mutton is actually now coming in over the 1½-cent-a-pound duty, and is on the market. The first considerable shipment, 891 carcasses, arrived last week, trans-shipped at London for America, and larger consignments are on the way. Dealers here have figured that they can pay both the freight and the duty and still make a profit at prevailing prices. It is a trade development of the past month, and an extraordinary example of the annihilation of difficulties and distance by scientific methods and the modern giant freight-carriers. Should this diversion of part of the vast shipments from New Zealand to London grow to importance, it may throw an interesting light on previous profits within the tariff wall. It may even indicate a simple and quick way of reducing the price of mutton by 1½ cents a pound.

The report that a party of four men from Fairbanks, Alaska, has succeeded in scaling Mount McKinley seems to be entitled to credence. The men were experienced mountaineers and evidently set about their task in a manner which bespoke intelligence as well as determination, and under unusually favorable conditions. Furthermore, the fact that all four of them are reported to have reached the summit has its significance, since an agreement involving four men in falsehood would obviously be dangerous, as the experience of Dr. Cook with only one fellow-conspirator has pretty well demonstrated. In the history of Mount McKinley there are some remarkable facts which it seems worth while to mention here. The United States Geological Survey puts its altitude at 20,464 feet, thereby making it the highest peak in North America. It is curious, however, that this great American mountain seems to have escaped the observation of Capt. James Cook when he explored the southern coast of Alaska in 1778, and it is not mentioned by Vancouver, who visited the same region fifteen years later, probably because it chanced to be hidden by clouds from both of these explorers. Nor is there, so far as we know, any written mention of the mountain by the Russians, within whose domains it continued until 1867, when Russia sold Alaska to the United States. Lieut. Henry T. Allen noted the great peak when he was exploring the lower waters of the Tanama in 1885, but evidently was not very much impressed with it, and even the earliest of the gold-seekers, in 1895, were similarly indifferent. W. A. Dickey, in 1896, first appreciated the physiographical importance of the peak, and suggested its present name. But it was not until it became associated with the great Cook fraud of the North Pole that our highest mountain came within popular knowledge.

The addition of an optional fourth year's work to the curriculum of the Harvard Law School is of considerable significance. The Harvard Law School was established in 1817, with a course of a year and a half; in 1839, this was increased to an optional two years, though few students took advantage of

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the full course, and the degree of bachelor of laws was awarded upon the completion of the shorter period. In 1870 the full two years were prescribed for the degree, and in 1877 another year was added, while in 1897 the university adopted a rule providing that no student could enter the Law School who was not a graduate of an approved college or qualified to enter the senior class at Harvard; and this restriction was still further increased subsequently by a rule requiring all candidates for the degree to be college graduates. This steady increase in the actual amount of serious and definitely prescribed training for the bar becomes the more significant when we remember that only thirty years ago the very notion of a law-school was openly pooh-poohed by many lawyers of recognized standing, who contended that the only way to learn to be a lawyer was to read law in a lawyer's office, and incidentally study at first hand its practical application. The increase in intellectual equipment still regarded as desirable is shown by the provision that in this optional fourth year at Harvard the student takes up such subjects as legal history and jurisprudence, international law, Roman, French, and German law, and the law of our Spanish colonies.

The excitement and tumult in the House of Commons, when Mr. Asquith carried through his anti-Lords resolution, has served to put at rest the notion that the impending contest will arouse no such interest as attended the Parliamentary canvass of last winter. It would argue such decline of political feeling in England as is in no way indicated, if a situation clearly portending one of the gravest Constitutional changes in British history could be viewed otherwise than with the most intense interest by the whole people. That the issue will be sharply defined, and that the result of the coming election will be looked forward to as settling it, seem assured by Mr. Asquith's declaration. There is a certain amount of mystery in his statement of the action the Ministry will take, in its relations with the Crown, upon the rejection by the House of Lords of the resolution which reduces this veto power to a strictly limited supervision; but, whatever form that action may take, it will evidently go as far as is possible toward making the result of the next election decisive. Of course, Mr. Asquith has no idea of procuring from the King a creation of peers at the present time for the purpose of forcing the will of the Commons upon the Lords; but it is plain that he means to put the case in such a way as to make it inevitable that, in the event of a Liberal victory in a new election, Lords and crown alike will, by one means or another, be compelled to accept the result.

Obviously, however, there is one event —and that by no means a remote one— against which it is impossible for Mr. Asquith to provide by any practicable prearrangement. A promise from the King, or a "gentleman's agreement" between the King and the Ministry, that in the event of a Liberal victory the Lords are to be shorn of their power, could hardly be enforceable in case the result of the election was very close; no moral force would stand behind the proposition that a permanent change of the most profound character in the British Constitution must be acquiesced in by the coördinate chamber and by the Crown simply because in a single election one party had won a bare majority over the other in the House of Commons. In what way this point may be guarded, it is, of course, impossible to say; but King Edward is a wary gentleman, and will not overlook his defences. But, however all this may be, the feeling of the electorate will inevitably be that on their verdict will depend the acceptance or rejection of the proposal to reduce the House of Lords from its position of a great bulwark of conservatism to the rôle of an occasional bar to hasty legislation.

In the London *Times* of April 9 is given a plan for a reformed House of Lords which appears to have been circulated in pamphlet form with a view to crystallizing opinion among the Opposition peers. According to this plan, the House would consist of 350 "lords of Parliament," of whom 120 would be "elected by their peers," 30 would hold office by virtue of their positions, and 200 would be named for life by the Crown upon the advice of the Prime Minister. This would reduce the number holding by the hereditary principle to about one-third of the whole, and as to the remaining two-thirds, would give an equal chance of representation to the opposing parties, thus materially diminishing the force of one of the gravest objections to the existing condition. On the other hand, it should be observed that the power of the Crown —that is, of the Ministry for the time being—to reverse a majority in the House of Lords by the creation of peerages would be decidedly impaired. The King could create peers, just as is now the case; but all that the new peers could affect is the choice of the elected "lords of Parliament," of whom only one-tenth are chosen in any one year. It is a singular situation, that after all these years the problem of how to reconstitute the House of Lords should now have to be attacked almost as though it were entirely new.

Baron Komura's plain avowal of Japan's desire to restrict emigration of the Mikado's subjects to Manchuria and Korea has an important significance for this country, in view of the approaching negotiations for commercial treaty renewals in which Japan will undoubtedly refuse to recognize further any specific discrimination against her people. It is in the controlling motives that the substance of this delicate issue must be sought. The Japanese Government gives the stamp of its approval to a policy which aims to keep its people as near home as possible. It is felt that the salvation of Japan, with 150,000,000 Russians and three times as many Chinese close at hand to the West, can only be worked out by a policy of solidarity. Her population must be increased, not scattered. Emigration is not officially wanted, either to North America or any other distant continent. But there is a national pride which will not continue to ignore any direct, formal ban placed by a foreign Power on such emigration as the Government cannot control. Should Japan object vigorously to a renewed discrimination, her course would not necessarily mean an encouraged invasion of our Pacific States by more Asiatic labor. Nations, as well as statesmen, may claim a right of freedom in action, and take it for granted that they will be presumed to behave with discretion and good-will. A clear understanding of Japan's ideas and ambitions may serve to allay criticism and suspicion at a needful moment.

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DISCLOSURE AND PUNISHMENT.

The country is going through an extraordinary experience in the fight against corruption. The activity displayed in the exploration of dark places, and in the "rounding-up" of scores of offenders, is a most wholesome thing, and full of encouragement for the future. Not to be afraid to turn on the light—not to balk at the uncovering of such a mess as that at Pittsburgh, for example—is the next best thing to being free from the evils against which the exposures are directed. And it is certain, too, that every such manifestation of public determination has lasting results. It will be long before things can get as bad again at Albany, at Columbus, at Pittsburgh, as they were before the work of cleaning out the stables was undertaken.

But there is one part of the task of improvement, and that an immeasurably important one, upon which we are in a lamentably weak position. Severe punishment through the machinery of the criminal law, is still no regular part of the American programme in these matters. Even in so crude and flagrant a case as that of the systematic stealings of the Sugar Trust, we do not seem likely to get very far in that direction. "It is felt here by those most directly concerned," said a Washington dispatch the other day, referring to the sugar frauds, "that there has been created at New York city an exceptionally effective agency of investigation which is fully competent to bring about the discovery and conviction of the guilty, and to cause to be returned to the government all moneys of which it has been fraudulently deprived." We trust that all this is fully true, but we add that the two objects referred to are not at all to be coupled together in point of importance. Moneys due the Government should, of course, be recovered; but this of itself should not be regarded as even in the smallest degree a punishment. To be effective, these sugar prosecutions must actually result in severe personal punishment of those primarily responsible for the crimes. We hope that this can be compassed; otherwise, exposure by a thoroughgoing Congressional inquiry, with the heavy moral punishment that such exposure carries with it, would be far more to the purpose.

That we do not get the proper infliction of legal punishments is due partly to our laws and judicial procedure, and partly to the national temper. On the first head, the country has been hearing a great deal in recent years; and from President Taft down, the sentiment has been emphatically expressed by every speaker and writer on the subject that our legal methods are in need of radical improvement. The difficulty of carrying a prosecution to a final and substantial issue, when the resources of the defence are abundant, is almost overwhelming. On one phase of the matter, formerly inconspicuous, attention has been frequently directed in the last few years—the immunity plea. Fear of that plea, for instance, is the reason for the Administration's objection to a Congressional investigation in the sugar frauds; and all along, the immunity plea has been a great stumbling-block in the prosecution of offenders against the Anti-Trust law. In a recent address discussing deficiencies in the administration of the criminal law, Mr. Untermyer placed foremost among the needed changes an abrogation of this kind of immunity. But it is curious to find in the same address a protest against the movement to cut off that abuse of the right of appeal which does more than any other one cause to rob the criminal law of its efficacy—a position for which, so far as we can make out, the only substantial support is that a man, after being convicted and after having undergone a large part of his punishment, has now and then been found by the highest court not to have been guilty. But if that is to be held a bar, we might as well give up punishment altogether; for, appeal or no appeal, there are bound to be some instances of erroneous conviction.

But in addition to any deficiencies in law or in judicial practice, the national temper plays a large part in the matter. We are a good-natured people; it goes against the grain with us to inflict severe punishment in cold blood. In part, too, it is the American sense of fair play that stands in the way—an admirable quality, of course, but sadly misapplied. The ease with which the Morse petition has found thousands of signers is due, above all, to the feeling that there are plenty of others just as bad as Morse, who, instead of being in prison, are in the enjoyment of wealth and luxury; and next after this, to the feeling that he is a plucky man, who has shown grit in adversity. Here, then, we have both the national sense of fair play and the national good-nature; with the consequence that in one of the extremely few cases in which a criminal belonging to the millionaire class has received a sentence commensurate with his crime, the moral effect is almost wiped out by a widespread manifestation of public sympathy. It is not too much to say that, before we can hope to get ride of the plague of corruption which has recently been so much in the public eye, we shall have to get over these amiable weaknesses. We cannot permanently put down blackmail and legislative graft and bank-swindling unless we show that when we catch a blackmailer or a grafter or a bank-swindler we regard him as a full-fledged criminal and treat him as such; that we are no more likely to consider how many uncaught ones are just as bad as he, or how somebody else would have acted if he had been in his place, than we do when we catch a pickpocket or a burglar or a counterfeiter. When the criminal law is administered with reasonable expedition and simplicity, and when public sentiment takes a firm and business-like view of what the criminal law is for, it will not be necessary to have so many spasms of civic virtue as are now needed to keep our house fairly clean.

THE REPORT ON LIBERIA.

The report of the three commissioners to Liberia, Messrs. Roland P. Falkner, George Sale, and Emmet J. Scott, recently transmitted to Congress by the President, was delayed so long and so unnecessarily in the office of the Secretary of State as to endanger its being acted upon by the present Congress. This we should consider highly unfortunate. The recommendations submitted by Mr. Knox and approved by Mr. Taft ought to be dealt with at the present session. They are clearly set forth and easy to master. All Liberia, moreover, hangs upon the action of this Government. If cable reports are to be trusted, the business of administration is almost at a standstill pending the decision of Congress as to what attitude this country will assume toward the African Republic which represents the only attempt of Americans to colonize on African soil.

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Let it be said at once that the commissioners found a much more favorable situation in Liberia than they or the Department of State had been led to expect. Alarmist newspaper reports originating in British circles had given the impression that the lives of foreigners were in danger; and there was actually a move on the part of the British Government to send a regiment to the Liberian capital, Monrovia. The chief difficulties confronting Liberia are from beyond the limits of the Republic. It is menaced by France on one side and Great Britain on the other. The former, says the report, "has based her aggressions on the plea that the territory which she has annexed, and then had ceded to her by treaty, was not effectively occupied by the Liberians, and was therefore subject to acquisition by another Power"—a pleasant little doctrine for one powerful country to lay down to a tiny neighbor. Thanks to it, Liberia, in 1902, lost to France a strip of sixty miles of coast and extensive territories in the interior, and no less than 2,000 square miles in 1907. So far as the English are concerned, the Commission is satisfied that the alarmist reports already mentioned were due to a conspiracy among British subjects in Monrovia, aided by the British officer in charge of the Liberian Frontier Police, to make it appear that the Government of Liberia was tottering to its fall.

So far from this being the case, the Liberian President, in the opinion of the Commission, extricated himself admirably from a trying situation, and the offending British commander, Major Cadell, who had, in violation of law, enlisted seventy-one British subjects in his Frontier Police, was dismissed. It appeared, after he left, that Major Cadell, who actually threatened the Government to which he owed allegiance, had left behind him a very considerable unauthorized debt. In 1904, British forces from Sierra Leone entered a portion of the Liberian territory to pursue hostile tribesmen who were raiding from Liberia into the British possessions. Since then the British have "occupied" this territory, and now refuse to relinquish it until Liberia shall have paid the costs of the British occupation. Says the Commission:

> The British foreign office has protested that Great Britain has no designs on Liberian territory. We find it hard to reconcile this protestation with the acts and attitude of her officials in Sierra Leone and Liberia. Certainly there is no difficulty in understanding Great Britain's declaration that if France is permitted to make successful advances into Liberian territory she will be compelled in her own interests to claim her share. It makes little difference whether Great Britain is the upper or the nether millstone. Liberia is between the two, and it is the conviction of the Commission that unless she has the support of some Power commensurate in strength with Great Britain or France, she will as an independent Power speedily disappear from the map.

So far as internal affairs are concerned, the Commission reports that the police are in good condition, but likely to deteriorate if not soon well officered, preferably by Americans. In the internal administration, the sorest point is the finances. The customs revenue is now collected systematically, but that from internal resources is pitifully small, owing to "crude and casual methods of collection," while expenditures have increased because of praiseworthy efforts to give more and better government to the native tribes in the interior. Lack of skill in estimating receipts and indifference as to the outcome of each fiscal year have resulted in the Republic's living annually beyond its means. Consequently, there is now a considerable floating debt in addition to a domestic debt "equivalent to about one year's revenue of the Republic." The total of both debts is only $1,289,000, but the foreign bondholders have become uneasy, owing to delays in making payments. The judiciary is reported to be honest, but little versed in law. Education is, on the whole, backward, but there are some excellent schools. Good harbors are a pressing need, and good highways even more so, for "the interior of Liberia is as little known to the Liberians themselves as to the world at large." With great possibilities of wealth in her forests, her rubber, palm oil, palm kernels, and pissava fibre, Liberia has "little more than scratched the surface of its soil in a very small portion of its area."

To improve the situation of the Republic, the Commission makes the following recommendations:

> (1.) That the United States extend its aid to Liberia in the prompt settlement of pending boundary disputes.
>
> (2.) That the United States enable Liberia to refund its debt by assuming as a guarantee for the payment of obligations under such arrangement the control and collection of the Liberian customs.
>
> (3.) That the United States lend its assistance to the Liberian government in the reform of its internal finances.
>
> (4.) That the United States lend its aid to Liberia in organizing and drilling an adequate constabulary or frontier police force.
>
> (5.) That the United States establish and maintain a research station in Liberia.
>
> (6.) That the United States reopen the question of establishing a naval coaling station in Liberia.

If Congress approves, Mr. Knox is ready to negotiate for a treaty with Liberia to carry out these objects. The success of our management of the Santo Domingo finances has not made the *Nation* feel more friendly toward the policy of policing other nations. In this case, however, it is indisputable that we have a heavy moral liability, since the Liberian Republic was set on its way by aid from the American Government and people. It is an admirable experiment station for negro self-government, which should not be allowed to fail because of foreign greed and aggression. At least some of the programme proposed should be carried out, even if Congress in its wisdom is opposed to the whole. A moral protectorate is to-day highly desirable.

THE END OF A CHAPTER.

The report is confirmed that Senator Hale, as well as Senator Aldrich, will retire from the Senate at the expiration of the present Congress. Senator Aldrich has been for many years the undisputed leader of the dominant party in the Senate, and has exercised a control of the actions of that body which often seemed unlimited. Next to Senator Aldrich in importance—though at a very long remove—Senator Hale was the only one left of the group of strong men who for years formed the centre of the Republican representation in the Senate. Their disappearance from the Senate Chamber will end the series of losses of veteran Senators of high ability which began with the death of Hoar and has been followed by the deaths of Platt of Connecticut and of Allison, and the retirement of Spooner. In comparison with these the men on whom the leadership of the Senate will now depend are green hands.

Hale and Aldrich are chairmen of the two most important committees of the Senate, Finance and Appropriations. Irrespective of any questions of controversy, there are a thousand matters

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to which they have devoted much labor, and which they have handled with ability. In the case of Mr. Hale, there are two subjects on which his individual position was distinctive and which call for particular mention. At the close of the war with Spain, his was one of the few voices raised in the Senate in opposition to the prevailing tendency. While not fighting as Senator Hoar did for the uncompromising assertion of old-time American principles, he did place himself on the side of those who were trying to stem the overwhelming tide of Imperialism. And he has been for years a thorn in the flesh of the big-navy people, his knowledge of naval matters and his membership in the Senate Committee on Naval Affairs giving his position special weight. In general, however, his position was that of one of the managers of the regular organization of the Senate, the right-hand man of Senator Aldrich.

As for Senator Aldrich, after every acknowledgment is made of his ability and his hard work in the carrying on of the necessary business of the Senate, the one fact stands out that he was the living embodiment of that sordid and corrupt system which has left its ineffaceable brand on the history of the Republican party for three decades. Taking its rise in a true national movement based on great ideas of humanity and morality, that party, after completing its immediate mission, went rapidly through all the stages of a strange and complete metamorphosis. After the close of the war, in the Reconstruction years, many a sin of corruption and misgovernment was laid at the party's door; but while public attention was largely centred on these temporary and promiscuous abuses, a profound and lasting change was going on in the very nature of the party. From "the party of moral ideas," from the party of union and freedom and equal rights, it was turned into the party of wealth, of extortion, of intrenched and insolent commercial privilege. And of this régime Mr. Aldrich became in time the very head and front. He is often spoken of as a wonderful master of the tariff question; but the tariff question of which he is a wonderful master is the question how much the American people can be made to stand and deliver to the protected interests without rising in successful revolt. Nor is it only upon the tariff that the Aldrich régime has represented this attitude. Up to a very recent time, every proposition in the United States Senate that was objectionable to the great capitalistic interests was doomed as a matter of course to death in committee.

The close of Senator Aldrich's career will coincide, we confidently believe, with the close of this most unedifying chapter in the history of the Republican party. The signs of impending change have grown more and more impressive with every passing year, every passing month. What was tolerated for years because of the historic past to which the party leaders so long "pointed with pride," what was tolerated for many years afterwards while the country was still in the heyday of a new and dazzling material prosperity, will be tolerated no more. The people will no longer accept big figures of "prosperity" as a substitute for the assurance that government is being carried on by honest means and with the honest purpose of securing to the whole nation the greatest benefits which our natural advantages and the spirit of our people make possible. The growth of the insurgent movement is a manifestation of returning health that must hearten every believer in democratic institutions, and must rejoice particularly every Republican who recalls the days when his party meant something quite different from tariff-worship, and sought objects whose value could not be measured in Wall Street. All signs point to the opening of a new chapter in the party's history; and if that chapter cannot be filled with a record as inspiring as that which filled its early years, every good Republican may hope at least that the party, by a sincere effort to deal wisely with the less inspiriting but more difficult problems of the present day, will free itself from the odium which three decades of money-worship have brought upon it.

A GREAT TEACHER.

It may be said without exaggeration, we believe, that with the death last week of Prof. William Graham Sumner of Yale University, an historic figure in American economic controversy passes from the scene. To the younger generation, whose habitual view of the tariff question is of an artificial system fastened on the country, from the grasp of which it is the country's business cautiously to extricate itself, and whose idea of the gold standard of currency is of a policy so completely settled as to be no longer a matter of controversy, it will not be altogether easy to picture the real achievements of this veteran teacher. Professor Sumner attacked the protective tariff system at a time when protection was a fetich. He preached free trade when assertion of that doctrine was almost equivalent, so far as concerned the feelings of social and business acquaintances, to the preaching of atheism. Not only was free trade, or even the modified propaganda known as tariff reform, regarded by a large and highly respectable part of the community as a gratuitous assault on American institutions, but it was mixed up, in the mind of the same people, with surrender to the political hegemony of England and payment of the Confederate debt.

It was Professor Sumner's notable achievement that he taught his doctrines to his students, in the face of this wall of public prejudice, without equivocation or qualification, and that he set forth the underlying principles with such clearness, sincerity, and force that the complexion of politics was gradually altered from his classroom. The body of new voters who year by year passed from that atmosphere of practical instruction into the domain of every-day life brought with them the clean-cut views and the propagandist zeal which Professor Sumner individually had imparted to them. What the country owed to him, and to the instructors who followed his example in our other colleges, for the community's emancipation, in the early eighties, from the mass of economic superstition which had been darkening the public mind, it would not be easy to overestimate.

In his writings on this subject and on the gold standard, and notably in his teaching of both in the class-room, the great power of Professor Sumner lay in his clear and practical common-sense. It was a favorite saying of the hide-bound high protectionists of the day, especially when they began to discover certain results at the ballot-box, that these young enthusiasts were surrendering their minds to unpractical doctrinaires; to "college professors"—the term was used sarcastically—who knew nothing of the world, of the history of com-

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merce or finance, or of modern business conditions, but who spent their days in secluded study of worn-out doctrines of another century. Nothing could have been more absurd as a description of Professor Sumner's economic teaching. He knew the world of business in a far broader way than the narrow conceptions of his critics; he was peculiarly versed in economic history, and nothing so fully explained his influence over readers and pupils as his power of plain and practical illustration of his doctrines by applying them to the industrial conditions of the day. His discussions of the currency, especially at the time when the fiat-money arguments still had a powerful hold on the public mind, were based equally on appeal to history, common-sense, and present-day conditions. His critics did not answer his arguments; they were content, as a rule, with denouncing them.

Probably most people conversant with our political history would say that the influence of Professor Sumner's teachings was most definitely felt in the years between 1880 and 1896. The split in the Democratic party in the last-named year, and its surrender to currency fallacies under the Bryan leadership, gave a much-needed opportunity to the Bourbons of high-protection. Having won the election of 1896 distinctly and exclusively on the sound-currency issue, the Republican leaders hastened, as soon as Congress was convened, to protest that high protection had been endorsed at the polls, and to enact a law with the highest of all protective duties. Helped by a decade of exceptional prosperity, not in the slightest degree caused by the Dingley Tariff, that law remained on the statute-books, and it seemed at times as if, after all, the work in that direction of men like Professor Sumner had been wasted; that the victory for sound money had been won at the expense of a defeat for sound commercial policies. The political history of the past twelve months has shown how mistaken such a judgment would have been. It is in no small measure to the honest and disinterested labors of such economic teachers that we owe the sane and intelligent view which the great majority of the voters manifestly take to-day on the tariff question.

No review of Professor Sumner's career could be complete without a warm and hearty appreciation of the service he rendered to his country during our war with Spain and in the Philippines. Resolutely set against every form of Imperialism and aggression, Professor Sumner again breasted the current of popular feeling, and protested with unfaltering courage against the national obsession. His pamphlet, "The Conquest of the United States by Spain," is unanswerable in its logic, and must remain notable in that literature of patriotic protests against national error, which, through all our history, has so often been justified with the lapse of time. Wedded to the faiths of the fathers of this country, by no specious argument of temporal advantage could he be made blind to the lasting spiritual and moral losses which departure from those traditions involved. He knew no compromise, as he knew no fear. In all serenity he bore the jeers of the mob, unfaltering in his duty and ennobled by that high sense of patriotism which made him the sternest of critics when convinced that his country erred. It is through such characters as Professor Sumner's, and not through money or masonry, that our universities wax great.

DEMOCRACY AND THE COLLEGES.

An incompletely reported alumni-dinner speech of spectacular character is usually a hazardous subject for comment. There is always the danger that the full report would make a very different impression. Nor is that danger wholly absent in the case of President Woodrow Wilson's remarkable address to the Princeton alumni at Pittsburgh on Saturday night; his vision, for instance, of America, if she loses her self-possession, staggering, like France, through fields of blood before she again finds peace and prosperity, may have had a very different effect with its context from what it has when taken by itself. But in order to get at the general spirit of the address it is not necessary to know the exact words used. It was an outburst of protest against abuses and defects that characterize the "rich man's college"; it was a passionate appeal for democratic ideals; it was a danger-signal flashed before the eyes of those who see not the perils that are invited by the self-indulgence and self-complacency of a plutocratic society.

President Wilson does not speak as an outsider; he speaks from the experience and the endeavors of years. He has seen at Princeton the steady growth of luxury, the steady advance of modes of living and habits of social intercourse, reflecting in the little college world the standards of a growingly plutocratic social régime. Where the democratic idea ought to be predominant, he has seen it struggling for survival. His efforts have for years been directed toward restoring the supremacy of the college or university as a whole over the institutions of social cliques and sets. He finds in the dependence of the university on the bounty of wealthy men a factor constantly working to reinforce the tendencies which he deplores. And he courageously lifts up his voice in appeal to the young men who have at heart the true welfare of the university and the true welfare of the country, to aid in bringing about a more wholesome state of things. In this endeavor, he should have the support of all thoughtful college men, rich and poor—of all true Americans.

And yet we cannot let this utterance of President Wilson go without a word of demur. To look for moderation and perfect balance on the part of a man of great oratorical gifts, exhorting his hearers in behalf of a militant reform, would be to expect too much; but it is not any question of mere exaggeration that we here have in mind. It is a fundamental question of point of view. With Mr. Wilson's attitude as regards luxury, snobbery, and the rest of it, we are in the heartiest sympathy; but a college is not confined to the choice of being a paradise of the *jeunesse dorée* on the one hand, and a propaganda of social service on the other. Surely, it is preoccupation with the one object he has immediately in view that must be held accountable for President Wilson's apparently determined ignoring of the claims of culture as such. This is not the first time he has stated his position in this way. In a careful and comprehensive discussion in *Scribner's Magazine* some months ago, of the question: "What is a college for?" one looks in vain for any recognition of the value of culture that is not directly applied to social achievement. If we take him at his word, in measuring the benefits that flow from the existence of our colleges, we must throw out of the reckoning altogether the making of the college men themselves into human beings having

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higher, or broader, or more complex, or more remote intellectual interests than would have otherwise been theirs. Time was—and that when boys went to college in homespun and lived on three dollars a week—when this upbuilding of the man himself was regarded as the primary aim of the college; but President Wilson would seem to wish us to believe that we must have done with all that: by its service to the masses of the people and by that alone must the college stand or fall in the modern judgment.

This defect in Mr. Wilson's position is the more to be deplored because we are convinced that it necessarily operates to diminish his chance of influencing opinion and sentiment in the very quarters in which, for his purpose, they most need to be influenced. To denounce the failure of colleges to live up to a fine and generous ideal of culture is one thing; to ignore the existence of such an ideal is quite another. Most of us are not prepared to abandon as idle frippery everything in the social institutions and personal activities of the day except what tends to the solution of the problems of poverty or the improvement of the condition of the less well-to-do masses of the population. Service directed towards these ends is noble, and receives its meed of recognition from rich and poor, learned and simple; and in such service college men have by no means been deficient as compared with other classes of the community. But there are other things in life that are worth while, and that go to the making of a world that has in it beauty and interest and variety and stimulus. Among these is liberal culture; and the liberal culture that men get out of four college years properly employed leavens their whole lives and makes the world a better and brighter place not only for themselves but for others. Indeed, if we are to place ourselves at Mr. Wilson's position, we cannot stop there; there are other fundamental institutions of the existing organization of society that would fare vastly worse under the test that he applies than would the colleges. Judged from the standpoint of a maximum of immediate benefit to the masses—judged without reference to the myriad interlacing influences that flow from them—all the institutions upon which our complex social structure is built would have to go by the board. In spite of Lord Salisbury's dictum of many years ago, we are not all Socialists yet; and those of us who are not must refuse assent to that dogma of service which Mr. Wilson would seem to make the alpha and the omega of his college doctrine.

PHILOSOPHERS AND GUIDES.

Of one thing Mayor Gaynor of New York may be sure. His intimate relations with Epictetus will do him no harm in the eyes of the public. Those of his fellow-citizens to whom the name of the great Stoic was not very familiar before this, will now bestow on Mr. Gaynor the tribute of sincere admiration which the crowd always pays to the respectable and the unknown. Beneath the good-natured banter of the press there is apparent a very distinct appreciation of the qualities of a public official who will read Epictetus when he might put himself full in the front rank of progress by reading "Chantecler." Those who have heard of the old Greek before will be astonished to find him in this year of grace 1910 alive as well as famous. It is delightful to hear that Epictetus as a visible presentment is not confined to the college libraries, and to the department-store shelves during the holiday season, where in gay binding he holds his place at extremely reduced prices with Ruskin's "Sesame and Lilies," Ik Marvel's "Dream Life," Owen Meredith's "Lucile," and Drummond's "Natural Law in the Spiritual World." And when we find the famous old "Encheiridion" really used for a hand-book, as Mr. Gaynor uses Epictetus, for a daily guide, for a refuge from the ills and perplexities of the commonplace world, this too, too solid New York seems to melt away, and we are living with those delightful Rationalists of the eighteenth century who exalted the brotherhood of man and worshipped the ancients.

Very few after-dinner speeches begin nowadays with a quotation from Emerson or Burke or Horace, let alone Boethius or Epictetus. And yet we cannot help thinking that one of the homely sentiments the ancients were so expert in devising would make as good a text as any of the wornout pegs in use among present-day orators. Surely, a sentence from Epictetus or Montaigne or Francis Bacon would be as dignified and as appropriate a beginning as the present rule which requires that the speaker, whether his subject is Gold Production in the United States or the Progress of Woman Suffrage, shall begin by stating that a Methodist bishop was once driving along a country road in the South, when he came upon an old colored man belaboring his mule with a fence rail. It is left to the speaker to effect, as neatly as he can, the transition from the negro and the mule to gold production and woman suffrage. It is true that nearly all of the stories about the negro and the mule, or the two Irishmen who were returning from a funeral, can be traced back to Epictetus, or one of his contemporaries or predecessors. And it is also true that our own imaginative, romantic, verbose, picturesque age wants more "go" and color to its wisdom than we can find in the sententious ancients. Nevertheless, it seems unjust that while we accept the wisdom of the old-timers as it percolates down through the newspaper funny column and the vaudeville stage, we should so utterly forget the men from whom so much of our modern wit comes, or classify them with the old duffers.

They are still sold in goodly quantities, those famous books which parents buy for their children to read, when they should be reading them for their own souls' good—Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius, and, perhaps, even Longinus on the Sublime, Plutarch, Don Quixote, Montaigne, and Francis Bacon. They are sold in goodly quantities, but the elders do not read them and the children either do not read or read and forget before they have become men and women. They gather dust under the common reproach that falls on the classics: highly moral, no doubt, but unreadable, and, for modern purposes, quite useless. And yet there is a tremendous amount of dynamite concealed in those musty and mild-mannered ancients. We live under their influence in the present day, without knowing it. It cannot be mere coincidence that the man who for seven years turned things upside down in Washington, the man who has turned things inside out at Albany, and the man who is busily putting things right side up in New York city, are all readers and students of the ancient moralizers—of Thucydides, Epictetus, and Marcus Aurelius.

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To what extent do men nowadays go to a favorite book for help in their everyday work? Everybody to-day has his favorite author; but that only means the author who can best help him through a spring evening at home or a sultry afternoon in a hammock. But are there still books to which men turn for light in perplexity, for solace in adversity, for that counsel and guidance which, unless the tradition of three thousand years lies, has been found by many men in many books? The books, we presume, are still to be had, books of a positive and not a merely negative efficacy, not merely books which take your mind away from something else that one would forget, but carry it to something else that it is good to remember. The books are still here, no doubt; but are the men here to read them? Are Mr. Gaynor and Mr. Hughes merely survivals, or is there still a considerable class of men who can make a daily companion of a single author or a favorite volume? It does not matter so much who the author is. The point is, does modern man look for or tolerate a guide and a source of authority outside of himself and his daily newspaper?

WILLIAM GRAHAM SUMNER.

NEW HAVEN, Conn., April 17.

The obituary notices of Professor Sumner, which have appeared during the past week have recalled the Sumner of the seventies and eighties rather than "the aging Titan" of more recent years—Sumner the political economist, rather than Sumner in his latest and ripest period. The tendency in thinking of him is to hark back to his vigor as a champion of free trade and sound money, and if something is said of the latter part of his career, it is likely to have to do with his opposition to the imperialistic movement. Such an attitude is natural enough, for Sumner's activities of thirty years ago were such as to leave a lasting impression upon his friends and an even more persistent recollection, if that were possible, in the minds of those whom he assailed. Upon this period of tremendous vigor, in the class-room, in the faculty councils, in publication, and on the platform, there ensued, in the early nineties, a breakdown in health which coincided with Professor Sumner's withdrawal from the field of political economy, and which, in the eyes of the public, seemed to mark the end of his effective career. In the later nineties, there appeared several volumes on economic subjects which by some were taken to be the signs of the closing up of a life-work.

In a sense this was true, and many of us would be happy enough to conclude a career with the renown which Professor Sumner enjoyed as a political economist. But to him the end of labors in this field merely marked the termination of one more phase of a full life. I have been asked, as a close associate and co-worker with Professor Sumner in the labors of this latter period, to try to afford his admirers and friends some idea of his activities, and of the man himself, as old age crept upon him. Of the labors one might say in general that they were as unremitting as health would allow, whereas before the illness of the early nineties they had been virtually incessant. There seems to have been in this man such intellectual eagerness, such a very mania for discovering the truth, coupled with so strong a power of will, that he wore out a sturdy physique untimely—for, with his strong frame and sound constitution, he might well have lived out the life of a Humboldt. As it was, Professor Sumner retained his large elective courses and ruled them with iron discipline, up to a few years before his retirement in 1909; and to the very end of his active service, he remained an incomparable leader in the college faculty. One who seeks to account for what Yale College has become, and who realizes that such an institution is not built of bricks and stones, but of men, cannot leave out of reckoning the often determinative influence wielded for nearly forty years by Professor Sumner. Even during the last years of his life, he never lost his characteristic power of cutting straight to the core of an issue; nor, indeed, was he deprived, until the latest years, of his joy in battle. He remained in old age the redoubtable debater, confronting opposition with a combination of manner, matter, and method with which few ever successfully coped. But the fight, though Homeric in its tactics, was always fair; Sumner always took his wounds in front, and, as one observer remarked, always shouted, "Look out! I'm coming for you!" before he charged. The greatest immediate loss involved in Professor Sumner's retirement and death, excluding the bereavement of those who loved him, is the loss sustained by the faculty of Yale College. The demonstration of June, 1909, when Yale accorded him the doctorate of laws—when fathers and sons united in cheering the great teacher of two generations—affected him, as he admitted, to tears; and during the succeeding summer he received many letters expressive of gratitude and affection which made him feel, as he said, that the world was using him well.

But I must turn—reluctantly, for the man was ever far more than the work—to the actual labors of these recent years. To judge from many conversations with him, Professor Sumner's interest had always been wider than economics pure and simple, even from the time when he was elected, in 1872, to the chair of "political and social science." At the time of its publication he read Herbert Spencer's "Study of Sociology," and he used frequently to mention the sense of intellectual assent and emancipation which broke over him upon making acquaintance with this and the larger sociological works of Spencer. It was characteristic of Sumner that he must not only know the truth, but pass it on; and, after some conflict with the entrenched conservatism of the day, he finally set before Yale College men the first course in sociology ever presented in an American college curriculum. His interest in the general science—which he called "Science of Society," or "Societology," to distinguish it from what was coming to be taught under the name "sociology"—steadily increased, his second inspiration dating from the reading in the late eighties of Julius Lippert's "Kulturgeschichte." Upon the partial recovery from his breakdown, Sumner ceased to teach political economy to undergraduates—though for some years he had large graduate classes in the United States finance and political history—and developed his classic course in what the students came to call "Sumnerology." In those days a man was hardly supposed to have won a genuine B.A. if he had not had "Billy Sumner." Within a few years the graduate courses in political economy had been superseded by others in the science of society, and Professor Sumner had ceased altogether to teach the specialty of his young manhood and of his prime. Many have regretted this change, but it was inevitable. Sumner's interests outgrew the sub-science and reached out toward the more comprehensive study of the life of society in all its phases, not the economic alone. He was by nature a way-breaker, and then he was beginning to feel what later became a conviction, that economics was slipping away from sound doctrine into the domain of "metaphysics." It is needless to say to any who have known his teachings that he eschewed the latter with all the rigor of which he was master, believing that he himself had suffered much harm from his earlier clerical studies along such lines, and having been, as he phrased it, "engaged in heaving that whole cargo overboard ever since."

During the late nineties we graduate students used to wonder why Sumner did not publish on sociology, although I do not recall that any one of us had the temerity to ask him. But at length one of us found enlightenment for all in an account of an interview in which some breezy reporter had inquired of Sumner what we all should have liked to ask. To the question, "Why

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does Professor Sumner not publish?" came the gruff answer, "Because he prefers to correct his own mistakes rather than to have somebody else do it for him"—and we were content to have suppressed our curiosity. As a matter of fact, however, some of us had been taken to Professor Sumner's study and had seen with amazement the serried rows of classified notes on anthropology and the science of society, and we knew what not many outsiders did, that the old-time industry and vigor had not lessened; and we used to believe that if Spencer had had such a collection of materials, the "Principles of Sociology" would have been far more strongly buttressed, and would more nearly have resembled the irresistible "Origin of Species." In the eighties, Sumner had known his Hebrew, Latin, Greek, French, and German; but in these materials was revealed the marvellous fact that, probably after the age of forty-five, he had learned to use readily, not only Danish, Swedish, Dutch, Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian, but also Russian and Polish. Equipped thus for the collection of materials, he had plunged into the field marked off by Tylor, Lubbock, Spencer, and others, and had read an incredible number of books, journals, and other sources. The first public indication of this research, and of the reflection upon its results, was the appearance, in 1907, of "Folkways: A Study of the Sociological Importance of Usages, Manners, Customs, Mores, and Morals." I cannot go into this publication except to say, first, that (as bearing upon what immediately precedes) it astonished scholars by the range of its knowledge. The bibliography, which is not at all a catalogue of all the author has ever read, or has had read for him, covers fifteen closely printed pages, and yet includes scarcely any titles of systematic works, and virtually no references to the author's extensive economic reading. To his fellow-scientists the "Folkways" revealed the fact that Sumner's scholarly labors, under conditions of ill health and of declining strength, had in later years even surpassed those of his prime. Further, it is thought by many that the "Folkways" represents a very fundamental step in the development of any sound science of society. Perhaps I may be permitted to quote from a characterization which was made some months ago (*Yale Review*, August, 1908, pp. 134-135) by the present writer, and with which Professor Sumner seemed to be pleased:

> This is a book, which, as it seems to the writer, Charles Darwin would have written if he could. It is patent to the reader of "The Descent of Man" that, whatever the cause, for once in his life Darwin has been led to essay waters beyond his depth; chapters iv and v of the "Descent" do not sound at all like Darwin. Because, in the interest of completeness, he was led or persuaded to attempt the treatment of man's social qualities and institutions, or for some other reasons, Darwin in these chapters undertook to discuss such topics as the origin of the moral sentiments. This part of the "Descent" had better have been left unwritten, for, in default of his usual mountains of data from which to draw irrefutable inductions, the great scientist was led to wander hopelessly among the unfamiliar and unfathomable quicksands of the metaphysical and intuitional. In so doing he presents but a sorry aspect to his admirers.
>
> The treatment of the "mores" by Professor Sumner is the sort of strong and ballasted product that Darwin delighted in. Moreover, it is a treatment which constitutes a distinct and characteristic amplification of the evolutionary theory. The folkways are shown to be adaptive to environment; it is plain that, in the long run, the fittest ways must survive. It admits of no doubt in the present writer's mind that the matter of this book fits into the "Descent of Man," after chapter iii, in a way more acceptable to Darwinian ideas than the work of Spencer possibly could be. Sumner's cast of mind is Darwinian rather than Spencerian; he has no synthetic philosophy to establish. His "Folkways" clarifies the matter of social evolution in a manner calculated to give his work place as truly supplementary to that of Darwin.

To understand the bearing of this book on the treatise covering the "Science of Society" (of which Professor Sumner speaks as his next task, in the preface to the "Folkways"), one must realize that the idea of the Folkways or mores was one which he came to regard as entirely fundamental to any science of society. He had written for several years on his projected general treatise on the "Science of Society" before he came to what he called the "section on the mores"; and this section it was which developed into a separate volume ("Folkways") to precede the major treatise. It is entirely regrettable that the latter could not have been completed; but, if a choice could have been made, it would have been better that the "Folkways" should receive the preference.

The most attractive and the grandest aspect of Sumner's latter years, though I have inevitably suggested it, remains. It is the man's character. He was a Roman soul among us; he lived before his students and colleagues as the embodiment of honesty and fearlessness. He was to the end the uncompromising foe of hypocrisy, sham, ostentation, and weak sentiment—which he curtly denominated "gush." I know that some will think I exaggerate in my friendship and reverence for the dead, when I say that he was in character an humble man. He seemed at all times positive and even intellectually arrogant, but his personal opinion of his own services and work always reminded me of the self-depreciatory attitude of Darwin. In personal relations he was unassuming, helpful, excessively grateful for small services rendered, but beset by the fear that he would cause anybody else some trouble. He was ready at all times with kindly counsel and sympathy—and the counsel was that of deep wisdom and the sympathy that of a warm heart. I have somewhat enlarged upon this side of his nature, because in appearance and to slight acquaintance he was stern, often gruff, seemingly without human feeling. But this was not the real man. He was a strong hater and a strong lover, as must happen where the essence of one's character is strength.

I cannot conclude this notice without referring to one of the most marked characteristics of the man as many of us have known him. Of late years he had been accustomed to walk slowly out the avenue from his house to East Rock Park, where he used to sit upon one of the benches in a secluded spot overlooking the little tidal river; and he was glad to have companionship in these excursions. But on the way out and back, I think it is safe to say, he seldom or never passed a little child, or, in any case, a baby, no matter how forlorn its estate, without some friendly words or other kindly demonstration. Some of us used to believe that he called to see the children rather than ourselves. And I do not remember to have seen a child afraid of him, despite the fact that his rugged and deep-lined countenance used to inspire not a few light-minded college seniors with the notion that it was best to keep at a safe distance.

It was in characteristic response to the call of duty that Professor Sumner's last efforts and energy were expended. He was scheduled for the president's address of the American Sociological Society; and he dragged himself off to New York, ill and weak, but as determined as ever, in the heavy snowstorm of Monday, December 27, with his manuscript carefully prepared, typewritten and corrected, in his bag. He struggled up nearly to the battle-line prepared to discharge his duty, as of old, but there was no strength remaining. "How characteristic of Sumner!" was the common remark at the news of his fall. One could scarcely wish for a more graphic description of his character and career.

ALBERT G. KELLER.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The auction of the Amor L. Hollingsworth library in Boston on April 12, 13, and 14 was very successful, the total of the three days' sale being $49,000. Record prices were paid for nearly all the items of Americana, and there was good competition for the other books, especially for the fine bindings. The highest price of the sale was $1,130, paid for the Massachusetts Laws of 1699, with the supplements to 1712. This was purchased by the Law Library of Harvard. A fine copy, in the original sheep binding as issued, of Captain Bernard Ro-

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mans's "History of East and West Florida," New York, 1775, brought $810. The highest previous record at auction is $410. Capt. John Mason's "History of the Pequot War," written in 1637, but not printed until 1736, brought $750. This identical copy was bought at auction for Mr. Hollingsworth in 1901 for $445. An Almanac for 1667, printed in Cambridge by Samuel Green brought $385. This copy had appeared twice before in the same rooms, bringing $155 in 1901 and $275 in 1904. Lescarbot's "Histoire de la Nouvelle France" (1609), the first edition, brought the record price of $410.

Wilberforce Eames has been for years collecting books relating to the American Indians, and the sale of his library, announced to take place several years ago, has been eagerly awaited. He has recently disposed of the major portion to the New York Public Library, retaining, we understand, only such books as the Library already possessed. The first portion of this residuum is to be sold ("absolutely without reserve," as the catalogue states) by the Anderson Auction Co., on April 26, afternoon and evening. A few duplicates from the Public Library are included, the most important being a Columbus Letter, one of the original Latin plaquettes, four leaves, small quarto, the second of two editions printed by Stephen Plannck in Rome in 1493. These 1493 editions of the Columbus Letter are at once the joy and the despair of the collector of Americana. This was Bolton Corney's copy, sold with his library in 1871. It was later acquired from Quaritch by William Waldorf Astor, and was presented by him to the Astor Library the next year. Anderson's cataloguer says that only fourteen copies are known, but twenty or twenty-one would be more accurate. The following list of copies may be of interest:

British Museum. Two copies.
Bibliothèque Sainte-Geneviève, Paris.
Commerzbibliothek, Hamburg.
Biblioteca Riccardiana, Florence.
Biblioteca Nazionale, Naples.
Biblioteca Trivulziana, Milan.
Biblioteca Communale, Fermo,
John Carter Brown Library, Providence.
New York Public Library, Lenox collection.
New York Public Library, Astor collection. The present copy.
Library of the late Baron James Edouard de Rothschild, Paris.
Library of the Duc d'Aumale, Chantilly.
Library of the late Henry Huth, London.
Library of the late E. Dwight Church, New York.
Library of the late Robert Hoe, New York.
Library of Edward E. Ayer, Chicago.

The Church copy was the Barlow and Ives copy, the only one ever sold at auction in America, bringing $2,200 at the Barlow sale in 1890 and $1,600 at the Ives sale in 1891. The Hoe copy (formerly Kalbfleisch's) and the Ayer are probably two out of the five following, which have been sold at public sale abroad in the last twenty-five years, but the present location of which cannot now be traced:

Dr. Court, sold in Paris, May, 1884.
Lord Crawford, sold in London, June, 1887.
Baron Seillière, sold in Paris, May, 1890.
Rev. W. E. Buckley, sold in London, February, 1893.
J. B. Inglis, sold in London, June, 1900.

No copy seems to have come upon the market within the last ten years.

Another great rarity in the Eames collection is George Alsop's "Character of the Province of Maryland" (1666), with the very rare frontispiece, though the last four lines of verse below the portrait are in facsimile.

On April 28 and 29 the Anderson Auction Co. will sell the first part of the library of the late Hon. Charles H. Truax. Thirteen specimens from the Aldine press (1495-1524); three books from Bedoni's press at Parma (1791-'93); several illuminated manuscripts; publications of the Bibliophile Society and the Dunlap Society; a collection of books on old silver; Gower's "Confessio Amantis" (1554), and a set of Brunet's "Manuel du libraire," the last edition (1860-80), are included.

On April 26, 27, and 28 the Merwin-Clayton Sales Co. will sell the first part of the library of William A. Gramer. Unusual series of the first editions of several modern authors, such as Bliss Carman, Gilbert K. Chesterton, Joseph Conrad, John Davidson, George Gissing, Maurice Hewlett, George Moore, Stephen Phillips, and George Bernard Shaw, are the most notable of the sale. "La Cuisine créole," a New Orleans cook-book, and an "Historical Sketch Book and Guide to New Orleans and Environs," both pulbished in New York by Will H. Coleman in 1885, are offered as unidentified books by Lafcadio Hearn.

On April 26 to 29 Libbie & Co. in Boston will sell a large library belonging to a Boston collector, whose name is not made public. New England town histories and genealogies; books on the Revolution; a large collection of Napoleon Memoirs; first editions of Andrew Lang and other English authors, and books in many departments make up the 12,000 volumes and over. An original impression of Paul Revere's famous print, "The Bloody Massacre, perpetrated on King Street, Boston, March 5, 1770," with contemporary note that it was colored by Christian Remick, is the most valuable single lot of the sale.

On May 4 Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge, in London, will sell a remarkable collection of manuscripts. Among the documents are full autograph letters of Mary Tudor, Mary Queen of Scots, Queen Elizabeth, Charles I, Charles II, and others; a series of thirty-four letters (partly signed) of Philip II of Spain; a nearly complete series of autographs of the Popes, beginning with Martin V (1428), and coming down to the late Leo XIII; a set of letters or documents written or signed by the French Sovereigns, from Louis XI to Napoleon, and other notable collections are included.

On May 9 to 12 the library of the late F. Marion Crawford will be sold by the same house. It is a working library without rarities. With it will be sold the library of Alderman Joseph Thompson. A first edition of Milton's "Areopagitica" (1644) and other seventeenth-century tracts, are included.

Correspondence.

FROM THOREAU TO CONFUCIUS, VIA WASHINGTON CO., VIRGINIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Sixteen years ago, in preparing an Historical Society paper, I made use of this quotation: "The virtues of a superior man are like the wind; the virtues of a common man are like the grass: the grass, when the wind passes over it, bends." I had come across it in reading Thoreau, and, struck by its mystic Eastern turn, I appropriated it—a novel, as well as a striking, figure of speech. This was in 1894. Thirteen years later, I had occasion to deliver an address on Gen. Lee, at Lexington, Va., and I again made use of the simile; but, not having made any note of the source whence I drew, I simply quoted from my own earlier production, giving it no further thought. In February, following, to my surprise, I received a letter from Abingdon, Va., signed R. V. Lancaster, saying that the phrase had been quoted by Professor Hogue of Washington & Lee University, in an account of my address, and attributed there to a "disciple of Emerson." Mr. Lancaster added, "now this idea in almost the exact form given is found in the Analects of Confucius."

More than a good deal taken aback by this discovery of my own unconscious erudition, I at once wrote to Mr. Lancaster, frankly expressing my surprise at the information given me, and my own surmise that the figure, if it had not actually originated with Thoreau, went back at furthest only to Emerson; and I went on to express the curiosity I felt to learn more of it. Mr. Lancaster, who had, it seems, been for fifteen years a missionary to China, replied that the Analects contained the following: "A certain ruler asks: 'What do you say to killing the unprincipled for the good of the principled?' Confucius replied: 'Sir, in carrying on your government why should you use killing at all? Let your evinced desire be for what is good, and the people will be good. . . . The relation between superiors and inferiors is like that between the wind and the grass; when the wind blows the grass must bend.'"

In a volume entitled "The Sayings of Confucius" (in the Wisdom of the East Series, recently published by Dutton), I find my quotation in two places (pp. 32, 42), where it appears as a reply made by Confucius to a question on government by Chi K'ans Tzu, "Ought not I to cut off the lawless in order to establish law and order? What do you think?" The reply is in nearly the same words as those used by Mr. Lancaster.

As my curiosity was now thoroughly excited, I at once set to work to find where in Thoreau's writings—for in my recollection, the quotation was inseparably associated with Thoreau—the extract from Confucius could be found. The editor of the definitive edition of Thoreau was unable to aid me; and, as time passed, I despaired of ever locating my elusive quotation. Chancing, however, one day across Mr. F. B. Sanborn, on a railway train, the conversation drifted from one topic to another, and finally to Thoreau. It occurred to me to mention my quotation. Mr. Sanborn, as is pretty generally known, is a sort of walking encyclopædia of odds and ends of miscellaneous information, and he now justified his reputation, telling me that I would find what I sought at the close of a chapter in Thoreau's "Walden," and that Thoreau there stated that the quotation was from a Chinese philosopher, mentioning no name. I found it at the close of Chapter VIII; but Thoreau had not in any way indicated the source whence he drew.

I presume I do not stand alone in having, on more than one occasion, lost sleep over

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the effort to place some quotation which had stuck, so to speak, in memory's crop, and in the placing of which no collection of quotations offered any assistance or supplied a clue. In the present case, I hold it to have been a notable coincidence that a poetical figure of speech found in Thoreau's works, and assumed to be taken from those of Emerson, should be thus correctly placed as attributable to Confucius by a modest Presbyterian clergyman, living in an obscure village nestled in the Virginia Alleghanies; he having a knowledge of the writings of Confucius solely as he had studied them in the Chinese tongue. Such a coincidence seems to merit mention among the Curiosities of Literature.

CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS.

Washington, D. C., April 14.

THE HETCH HETCHY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the Hetch Hetchy controversy new light has suddenly appeared and completely altered the aspect. It has been assumed, by both sides, that the area in the Yosemite National Park which has been conceded to San Francisco, Lake Eleanor and Cherry Creek, was insufficient to give her the amount of water to which she is entitled, and therefore she demands Hetch Hetchy also. This impression is gained by the wording of the Garfield permit. As a matter of fact, this area yields twice the amount of water which is the share of San Francisco, and she will be compelled to release one-half of it to the irrigationists. Taking her share in her own territory, she is not entitled to a gallon of the main flow of the Tuolumne River, passing through Hetch Hetchy.

The irrigationists have a prior right to 1,500,000,000 gallons a day; the remaining 200,000,000 gallons a day, or 13 per cent. of the total, is the share of San Francisco. The total drainage area of the Tuolumne basis is 639 square miles. Of this total Lake Eleanor has 84 square miles, or 13 per cent. Cherry Creek drains 103 square miles, or 16 per cent. of the total. Therefore, the two combined, which is the territory conceded to San Francisco, take up 29 per cent. of the Tuolumne drainage. Thus it appears that Lake Eleanor alone is all that San Francisco is entitled to. The Cherry Creek supply and the flow of the main Tuolumne River belong to the irrigation districts by right of prior location.

This estimate is based on the assumption that precipitation of moisture is uniform throughout the entire Tuolumne basin. In fact, however, precipitation is heavier in the norther section, where are Cherry Creek and Lake Eleanor, than in the more southerly part.

In the matter of storage, Lake Eleanor, which San Francisco is required to develop to its greatest capacity, will make an enormous reservoir. And there are several sites above which can be utilized. On Cherry Creek, Cherry Valley can be developed into a reservoir, nearly as large as that at Lake Eleanor, and there are also a number of good sites farther up stream. Furthermore, it is generally understood that San Francisco intends to take over the enormous storage reservoirs of the water company, which now supplies the city. It, therefore, appears that, in what has been given her, she has her water and ample storage for it.

This new information should settle the matter, so far as honest people are concerned. But there are a few dishonest men, who are demanding the Hetch Hetchy, and who have been maturing in secret a plot so atrocious that they have not as yet dared to whisper it in public. By turning the Hetch Hetchy into a reservoir they wish to seat San Francisco on the throat of the irrigationists, and lay the legal foundation now for raising the claim, when more than 200,000,000 gallons a day are needed, that municipal use of water is paramount to its use for irrigation, and thus rob the irrigationists of their supply, and convert a great area of rich valley, now rapidly developing, into a parched and desert waste, scattered with the ruins of deserted homes. With cold-blooded villany, they are planning to do this, knowing that an abundance of water for San Francisco can be had from other sources.

GEORGE EDWARDS.

Berkeley, Cal., April 9.

THE COAL SUPPLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 14 Prof. William H. Hobbs crowds into a single paragraph so many misstatements of what might be easily verified facts that a correction should be filed at once.

As joint authors of the estimates of coal supply and exhaustion in the United States, it is but fair that we should be accorded the right to have our figures correctly reported. Professor Hobbs states in his communication:

> At the recent Minnesota State Conservation Convention, the Secretary of the Interior of the United States, in an address the effect of which could only be to discourage conservation of natural resources, is reported to have stated that not more than four-tenths of one per cent. of the total coal supply of the world has yet been mined, and that the supply is sufficient to last 7,000 years. It would be interesting to know upon whose computations these figures are based, since the estimates of the experts of the United States Geological Survey have placed the proportion of the fuel now unmined at from 40 to 70 per cent. of the total original supply, and have predicted complete exhaustion of the mines in from 107 to 120 years.

The Secretary of the Interior, Mr. Ballinger, in his address above referred to, said:

> According to the production of coal in the United States at the close of 1908, only four-tenths of one per cent. of the original supply of coal has been exhausted, leaving as the apparent supply still available 99.6 per cent. of the original supply, or coal enough to last, as some claim, for a period of 7,000 years.

In making this statement the Secretary of the Interior is in exact accord with the estimates which have been made by us for the Geological Survey. These estimates were published in the report of the National Conservation Commission, and in somewhat greater detail in the reports of the Geological Survey on the production of coal in 1907 and 1908. In the report for 1908 the latest figures covering the coal supply and exhaustion are given. On page 28 the following statement occurs:

> The total production of coal in the United States at the close of 1908 was 7,280,940,265 short tons, which, including the waste involved in the mining and preparation, represented an exhaustion of 11,870,049,900 tons, leaving as the apparent supply still available 3,064,334,011,000 tons, or 99.6 per cent. of the original supply; that is to say, up to the beginning of 1909 only 0.4 of 1 per cent. of the original supply of coal has been exhausted. The quantity of coal still available at the close of 1908 was 7,369 times the production in that year, and 4,913 times the exhaustion represented by that production.

The Secretary of the Interior simply quoted from the published reports of the Geological Survey, and it is difficult to understand how Professor Hobbs arrives at the conclusion that there has been "an invasion by political influence of the freedom and independence of bureaus of scientific inquiry." The first estimates of supply and exhaustion were published in connection with the United States coal fields map issued in May, 1908, nearly two years ago. It should seem that this answers Professor Hobbs's suggestion that it would be interesting to know upon whose computations these figures (those quoted by the Secretary of the Interior) are based. For the sake of scientific exactness Professor Hobbs is advised that the Secretary of the Interior in his address did not refer to the coal supply of the world, but to that of the United States alone. The percentage of the exhaustion of the world's supply, however, is not materially different from that of the United States, as it has been estimated by Mr. Alfred H. Brooks that 0.8 of one per cent. of the entire world's supply has been exhausted. Professor Hobbs apparently attempts to quote us as predicting the complete exhaustion of the coal supply in from 107 to 120 years. It has been stated, and it is true, that if the rate of increase in coal production which has obtained during the past fifty years continue, the supply of the easily accessible and available coal would be exhausted by the middle of the next century. This has also been stated in our official reports, all of which were published before Mr. Ballinger became Secretary of the Interior.

Professor Hobbs further states that "Cabinet officials have not heretofore indulged in such grotesquely inaccurate statements of scientific subjects." In this case the "grotesquely inaccurate statements" should not be charged to a Cabinet official. They were given to the public, not "by one of the great scientific bureaus of the government, under protest," but have been published in carefully prepared official reports and stand on their merits.

Wide circulation has not been given to the report of the National Conservation Commission, but the contributions by the members of the United States Geological Survey have been made available through Bulletin No. 394, which Professor Hobbs doubtless has in his library.

We disclaim for ourselves and for our associates having made any estimate "that the proportion of fuel now unmined is from 40 to 70 per cent. of the total original supply." As above stated, the proportion of the quantity unmined is 99.6 per cent. of the original supply.

As stated by Mr. Alfred H. Brooks, in his testimony before the Ballinger-Pinchot investigating committee, any one is at liberty to base his estimates of duration of the coal supply anywhere he pleases between 150 years and 5,000 years.

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In commenting upon the influences which might affect the coal production of the future, we concluded our statement to the Conservation Committee on the duration of the coal supply with the following:

With so many indeterminate factors whose importance is realized, but cannot be measured, prophecy must possess a questionable value.

M. R. CAMPBELL,
Geologist in Charge of the Economic Geology of Coal.

E. W. PARKER,
Statistician in Charge, Division of Mineral Resources.

Washington, D. C., April 15.

THE NEW YORK CITY HALL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I note your not overcharged remarks in deprecation of the reprehensible proposition to degrade our admirable City Hall into "no more than a stepping-block to the [contemplated new] Court House" so sorely needed—but by no means in the City Hall Park—for our ever-growing city.

As the secretary for thirty consecutive years of the New York Chapter of the American Institute of Architects, and frequently, at intervals during that period, also secretary—for some ten years in the aggregate—of the Institute itself, and thus in close and recurrent relations with most of our prominent architects, I can vouch for the fact that this consummate example of the Renaissance school, the City Hall of our financial metropolis, is accepted as such by the whole architectural profession—*sensu bono,* of course; for, as in all professions, that of architecture has its share of members who are much more devoted to commercial and self-seeking than to ethical and public-spirited considerations, and whose interest in procuring, without any inconvenient scruples, a new commission, is much keener than in preserving the integrity and the prestige of a noble output of their art.

Several times I was, along with two or three of the most distinguished practitioners of New York, placed by the New York Chapter on committees to plead with the municipal authorities against making any change whatever in the exterior of the City Hall, or permitting any further encroachment (far too much having already been granted) on the park surrounding it. On another occasion, at the request of and in company with the late Hon. Andrew H. Green, the "Father of Greater New York," I gave the then Mayor of the city what I thought, and still think, good reasons for advocating the use of the whole length of the north side of Chambers Street, between Broadway and Centre Street, for a new municipal building to meet and complement the judicial, legislative, and postal requirements of the city and County of New York.

Time and further observation have confirmed me in this opinion, and have moreover convinced me that not only should this strip be acquired by the city for the governmental accommodations which have become such a serious desideratum, but that the whole block bounded by Chambers Street, Broadway, Duane Street, and Centre Street should be secured for its present and future needs, the existing Court House and Post Office demolished, and their sites restored to the park for additional breathing and recreative area, in behalf of the neighborhood's congested population.

A. J. BLOOR.

Pasadena, Cal., April 12.

Literature.

MEXICO.

Porfirio Diaz, President of Mexico, the Master Builder of a Great Commonwealth. By José F. Godoy. With 60 illustrations, maps, and diagrams. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.

Mexico: Its Ancient and Modern Civilisation, History, and Political Conditions, Topography and Natural Resources, Industries and General Development. By C. Reginald Enock, F.R.G.S. With an Introduction by Martin Hume, M.A. With a map and 75 illustrations. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $3 net.

Mexico, the Wonderland of the South. By W. E. Carson. Illustrated. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2.25 net.

On the Mexican Highlands, with a Passing Glimpse of Cuba. By William Seymour Edwards. Second edition. Cincinnati: Jennings & Graham. $1.50.

Less than two years ago a review of Martin's "Mexico of the Twentieth Century," which appeared in the *Geographical Journal,* closed with the significant words: "There is still room for a good, all-round book on Mexico." As the review was signed with the initials of Alfred P. Maudslay, the highest English authority on Mexican history and archæology, the remark carried great weight. In fact, it seems to have attracted a considerable amount of emulation, for since then at least a dozen books have been published in English which deal with the whole or a part of Mexico. A more obvious reason for this literary activity is that Mexico is soon to celebrate the one hundredth anniversary of her independence. Furthermore, next July marks the conclusion of President Diaz's seventh administration. Last year there seemed to be some doubt whether he would accept the duties of an eighth term. All doubts have now been dispelled, and it is taken for granted that in his eightieth year he will be unanimously reëlected for the coming six-year period.

Accordingly, the publication of a semi-official biography of that distinguished ruler by a well-known Mexican diplomat, would seem to be a matter of no little public interest. The reader soon learns, however, that Mr. Godoy has taken his text from the last verse of the second chapter of Mr. Root's speeches to the Mexicans in Mexico: "I look at President Diaz, the President of Mexico, as one of the greatest men to be held up for the hero-worship of mankind." And Mr. Godoy proceeds to hold him up for our worshipful admiration. But as this has already been done several times, one need not expect to find here any new light on the "Moses and Joshua of his people." In fact, there is no evidence of any real insight into affairs, and only the briefest and most casual mention is made of the actual steps by which Mexico has achieved her present enviable position through the skill of her great President. To be sure, there are quotations from the closing paragraphs of various Presidential messages sent to the Mexican Congress at the close of successive administrations. But those aspects of his government which have of late received so much criticism are absolutely ignored. The following sentence is characteristic of the book:

> The total loss of the crops, the high rate of exchange due to the depreciation of silver, and the economic crisis which then ensued, brought about a reduction in the revenues of the government; but President Diaz, acting with foresight, adopted measures which brought about the satisfactory result of increasing the permanent revenues of the government (p. 53).

Marvellous! But how did he do it? The curiosity aroused by such a miracle of statecraft is not gratified by the presentation of any detail. The "measures" in question, and all other specific acts which might arouse suspicion, have been passed over in silence. Apparently, President Diaz never committed an error of judgment. Praise and adulation continue in increasing crescendo until chapter xv is reached, when for the next seventy pages we have a pyrotechnical display that, for interest and entertainment, can only be compared to a scrapbook of obituary notices prepared by a clipping bureau upon the death of some distinguished philanthropist. In the present case, however, the one hundred and seven eulogies are actually signed by "prominent men," Senators, Representatives, college presidents, and diplomats. While many of them admit that they have no personal knowledge of the subject about which they are writing, a few could, if they would, agree with Mr. Carnegie that "one of the most pleasing recollections of my life is that I was received in the City of Mexico in special audience by His Excellency, President Diaz." It is a pity that Mexico's able Executive, whose remarkable achievements cannot be gainsaid, should have allowed his recent chargé d'affaires at Washington to cloud his reputation with such a heavy volume of praise. Too much incense only makes the worshippers sneeze.

Mr. Enock's "Mexico" is well worth acquiring. As was to be expected from the character of its predecessors in the South American Series, its space has been judiciously divided between history and present conditions. Archæology, ethnology, history, politics, natural resources, mineral wealth, and commerce

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receive each due consideration. In following the profession of a civil and mining engineer, Mr. Enock has seen many parts of the land which are unfamiliar to the general reader; at the same time, he has not yielded to the temptation to neglect the essentials. His style has improved much since his first book, "The Andes and the Amazon," was published a few years ago. Yet he still allows himself too frequently the privilege of moralizing, and he has a dangerous tendency to generalize with regard to Latin America. It is true that his knowledge of both Mexico and Peru is accurate, but it frequently leads him to draw erroneous conclusions about the other countries. Notwithstanding these faults, he has produced a most satisfactory handbook. It is not so delightful as Flandrau's "Viva Mexico," the best appreciation of Mexican character that has appeared in English; and as a guidebook and *vade mecum* for travellers, it is not the equal of Terry's "Mexico." Nor does it contain so detailed an account of present conditions as Martin's two volumes; but it is on the whole more the kind of book for which the average reader is looking and in which he can learn the characteristics of Mexican life and travel, and the desired facts in regard to the evolution of modern Mexico. It is the best of the books that have appeared quite recently on Mexico. Furthermore, it is a relief to find that Mr. Enock has not found it necessary to indulge in that fulsome flattery of Mexico's greatest President which has been so marked a feature of many recent books besides Mr. Godoy's. It should also be said that he does not descend to that ignorant abuse of the sterner measures of Diaz's administration which has become the fashion in certain other quarters.

At the first glance at its title, Mr. Carson's "Mexico" would appear to be another attempt at "a good, all-round book on Mexico." But it turns out on examination to be merely the usual result of a literary traveller's four months' wintering in a semi-tropical land. Mr. Carson is an omnivorous gatherer of facts. His first two days on Mexican soil yielded him the material for at least fifty closely printed pages! In his journeyings he covered the ground that most hasty Mexican travellers are thoroughly familiar with. As Mr. Beebe said five years ago in his charming "Two Bird Lovers in Mexico," "The strangeness of the Mexicans and their dress, their houses, streets, and markets were of never-failing interest; but well-written accounts of these may be found in half-a-hundred volumes." Unlike Mr. Kirkman, whose artistic "Mexican Trails" was recently reviewed in these columns (November 25, 1909), Mr. Carson rarely left the beaten trail, and knows almost nothing of the life of Mexico away from the railway. Some of his remarks are amusingly naïve, such as: "Few Mexican women are domesticated" (p. 125); "no foreigner, unless he be associated with diplomacy, is likely to have any chance of studying and judging the Mexican women" (p. 159); "fevers and malaria [!] are certain to result from exposure to rains or the intense heat of the midday sun" (p. 383). There is a good deal of tiresome repetition on the slowness of the train service, the charming views, and the bad Americans that the author met with everywhere. Perhaps the most interesting feature of the book is the evidence it gives of the prevalence of Americans in nearly every Mexican city of any importance.

Ten years ago William Seymour Edwards made a trip from his home in West Virginia to Mexico City by rail, returning by way of Havana and Florida. Although he spent but a month in Mexico, his time was well occupied. His observations are keen yet sympathetic, and his style is intimate and friendly without any pedantry or padding. Unlike Mr. Carson, Mr. Edwards tells his readers exactly the length of time spent in each place and faithfully records his experiences in an out-of-the-way region without finding it necessary to draw largely on the works of his predecessors. In fact, he admits in so many words that he is afraid of retelling his readers what they already know. Therein lies the secret of his charm and the reason for the success of his book, a second edition of which has just appeared, the first edition having been published in 1906.

CURRENT FICTION.

Lady Merton, Colonist. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. New York. Doubleday, Page & Co.

In the light of this pleasant story, "Marriage à la Mode" may almost be forgotten. The acerbity, the indignant insularity, which distinguished that tale, are here abandoned for an almost voluptuous worship of the spirit of the new world. It is, to be sure, a new world over which, however precariously, the Union Jack still floats. Mrs. Ward's visit to Canada evidently left her in a much more comfortable mood than her sojourn in "the States." Indications are not lacking of a sharp line drawn by the chronicler between the Canadian and his cousin across the border. The latter is a person to be kept in his place if possible, and if not, to be converted with all expedition. There is a French Canadian in this story who has a chronic fear of the "American invasion," especially in British Columbia—a "peaceful penetration, both of men and capital, going on so rapidly that a movement for annexation, were it once started in certain districts of Canada, might be irresistible." But the Britons have no such fear. The calamity might have happened, they grant, before the development of the Canadian Pacific, but now America merely adds her quota to the incoming torrent of aliens eager to be naturalized, to have their part in the development of a new country—under the Crown. "We come after America—we climb on her great shoulders to see the way!" cries Lady Elizabeth. And an American who agrees that Canada is likely to remain Canada adds quietly, "I dare say we have missed our bargain. What matter! Our own chunk is as big as we can chew."

That beautiful English widow, Lady Merton, falls in love with Canada partly because the bigness of the chunk excites her fancy. She thrills at the spectacle of England dealing so rapidly and capably with the monster. "Twelve years ago even—in all this Northwest—practically nothing. And then God said, 'Let there be a nation!'—and there was a nation—in a night and a morning." In this intense ejaculatory strain does the visiting lady discourse to her Canadian hosts, to her brother, to the man who has followed her from England in order to make love to her. And, of course, it is a Canadian who becomes the embodiment of her dream of greatness, and the Englishman is sent about his business; and after proper emphasis upon the obstacle to their union, Lady Elizabeth and her Anderson take up together the life of the pioneer. The machinery of adverse condition and incident is rather crude and melodramatic, and cheapens the whole performance. Otherwise the story is pleasant, emotional, feminine, characteristic of Mrs. Ward in her later and less robust mood.

Nathan Burke. By Mary S. Watts. New York: The Macmillan Co.

This story is of a quality so unusual as fairly to shake our faith that Mr. Churchill's "A Modern Chronicle" will prove the most remarkable American novel of the season. It does extremely well what so many of our story-tellers (Mr. Churchill included) have so often done ill or failed to do altogether. It belongs, that is, to the not very promising category of "historical romance." Nominally, it is the autobiography of Gen. Nathan Burke, who won popular fame in the Mexican war as the "Hero of Chapultepec," and led thereafter an honorable life as a prominent citizen and member of the Ohio bar till his death from heart-failure in the year 1889. The preliminary rules of this sort of pseudo-autobiography are observed with more than ordinary care. The reader is spared no assurances in the author's Introduction that her part in the narrative is a slight one; and if it were not for the fact that the title-page is that of a novel, the credulous reader might go some distance with the author without suspecting her of being

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more than the editor she professes herself. We own our ignorance as to whether such a person as Nathan Burke ever existed in the flesh; but we are reasonably sure that the Nathan Burke of this chronicle never drew breath outside of it. He belongs to the fabulous race of Newcomes, Dombeys, Uncle Tobies, Col. Carters, *et al.*—a glorious company, to be sure.

The narrative is supposed to have been interrupted by the General's death, and is not caried beyond the year 1852. He was still a very young man; but the romantic part of his story was told. He had come back from the wars—for good, so far as we know—had married and settled down with the happiest prospects for the ever after. In short, it is the experience of an American youth in the thirties and forties which the novelist has concerned herself with. That was precisely the period which it is hardest for the present generation to visualize—the age of pantalets, eloquence, and "Martin Chuzzlewit." The present story brings it to life again as if by a spontaneous act of creation. The atmosphere of the time, social and political, is revealed by a vast number of minute touches; and the little group of persons in the foreground have their typical as well as individual significance. But they are not merely introduced as types, to pass off a work of historical interpretation as a piece of fiction. If neither Nathan Burke, nor the Duceys, nor Francis Blake, nor Jim Sharpless, nor Uncle George ever really lived, they have something at least of that imaginative reality which belongs to the people of "Tristram Shandy" or "The Virginians" or "Joseph Vance." Young George Ducey and Nance Darnell hold a less secure footing. If George Ducey were not quite so despicable, and Nathan Burke not quite so admirable, the cautious modern reader might be more readily won to an acknowledgment of their virtue as ideal conceptions. But in their setting they are like to win him on their own terms.

There is a suggestion of artifice in the strongly Thackerayan flavor of the style, with its frequent digressions into that plaintive elegiac strain which grows a little mawkish in Thackeray's later pages. The vein is perfectly natural from the pen of the supposed narrator, a middle Victorian in his prime and a professed admirer of the great Jeames: we must admit that it crops out also in the author's (or editor's) Introduction.

Dan Merrithew. By Lawrence Perry. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Here is an addition to the long list of books which come near to spoiling themselves by trying to be at once sea-stories and love-stories. There must perhaps be a rich ship-owner with an attractive daughter to offset the brawny, honest captain—and yet, why? Why not a book made of the best of such exploits as this—and its best is excellent—and omit the dinners at rich men's tables where the hero sea-dog accomplishes "with easy grace and unconsciousness" the "difficult feat" of entering the drawing room after the other guests have arrived? A mariner's unexpected *savoir vivre* in "dealing with the courses," his total lack of intention to swallow his knife, or even his fork, together with the discovery that he has been captain of the eleven at Exeter, of course constitute social rehabilitation for the sea-dog, but the reader feels small and foolishly amphibious in assisting at the watching of these symptoms. Extract three-quarters of the girl and her "blush-surged" cheeks, and there remains a series of sea adventures which would make a good, even a thrilling, book for boys of both sexes and all ages.

It must be admitted that there is originality in a heroine who so far loses her head as to lock herself into her stateroom when the vessel is on fire, and recovers it enough to make fudge in the galley while floating about in a derelict. Life on a derelict amply furnished with woman's garments and canned food is indeed as inspiring as a Swiss family Robinson tree. It is appreciation of its possibilities and of Dan Merrithew's seaworthiness that prompts the wish for more salt and less society.

Lost Face. By Jack London. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Nothing that Mr. London does can be quite ignored by a critic of contemporary fiction. He has the knack; and, however much his personality and method may offend, they are to be reckoned with. He represents a school or a tendency of fiction which has asserted itself strongly of late. No doubt it is partly the result of the labors of our yellow press in the dissemination of horrors. If we no longer go to public hangings, we need not feel the deprivation acutely. For a penny a day, we can see the murderer strike the blow, hear the victim's death-struggle, dabble in the blood of the departed, and thereafter follow the murderer every step of the way to the electric chair—and beyond. The popular magazines are bound to take their tone from the popular newspapers. They do not report actual murders, but fiction may be made as bloodthirsty as you like at small cost. It seems to us that the brutal story, the slogging story, the story not necessarily of crime, but of horrible suffering, is becoming more and more undisguisedly a staple of our magazine fare. How many times during the past few years have we been encouraged to gloat over the spectacle of the man dying of thirst in the desert. The cracked lips, the black and swollen tongue, and all the rest of it—they have been made as familiar to our fancy as the lover's sighs of an earlier and tamer fiction. We know how horses are tortured to death, how sled-dogs are flayed to their last effort, and eaten for their pains. We know too much for our peace of mind already. But the story-writer is determined that we shall know more: Mr. London, in particular, seems willing to spare us nothing. In his latest collection of tales, we find several of the familiar horrors retailed with the customary detail—men who die by inches of cold or hunger, and so on. But in the title story, the writer makes a really distinguished addition to his series of brutal exhibits; describing in detail the (one might think) unspeakable torturing to death of a huge Cossack by a band of Nulato Indians. We recognize Mr. London's talent; but he seems to us the victim of a disease of the fancy from which, and from the effects of which, it is impossible not to shrink.

MR. MARSHALL'S PSYCHOLOGY.

Consciousness. By Henry Rutgers Marshall, M.A., L.H.D. New York: The Macmillan Co. $4 net.

This work is a systematic treatise on psychology. It might be called, in a paraphrase of Spencer's familiar title, "A System of Synthetic Psychology." Its striking design is to bring all the phenomena of consciousness together under the conception of a mental continuum, a sort of psychic sea, every part of which influences every other, and in which a particular sight, sound, or emotion is a mere "emphasis," a wave of the sea. Dr. Marshall departs, of course, from the traditional division of mental facts into knowing, feeling, and willing. He departs equally from the method of taking different species of consciousness, such as sensation, imagination, conception, and the like, as subjects for unconnected chapters. It is one of the capital merits of the book that it represents a thoroughgoing sensationalism. Dr. Marshall would no doubt reject the term, and with some reason. He is entirely free from the crudities of sensationalism. But he has this vital tie to the sensationalist way of thinking: for him all mental facts whatever are on exactly the same footing; they all equally reflect the workings of a nervous system which is called into action by impressions from without. He rejects the view that consciousness is directly correlated with the action of the cerebral hemispheres only. But no one has worked out a psychological system with such constant attention to the correspondence between the life of the nervous system and the life of the mind, the correspondence between the noetic and what, in an admirably coined term, he calls the neururgic. His system is built on the basis of the analogy of these two, and he constantly derives light now on one,

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now on the other, from the nature of its partner.

Dr. Marshall ranges all the varieties of mental life upon five quantitative scales; the scales of intensity, manifoldness, realness (stability), pleasure-pain (which he calls the "algedonic" quality), and the time-quality. This gives him a sort of psychological mechanics in which the foregoing attributes take the place of the volume, density, velocity, etc., of matter. Such features of consciousness as attention, will, belief, are explained by the presence and proportion of these attributes in each of them. Thus, attention is explained in terms of a certain correlation of intensity and manifoldness. Belief is analyzed with reference to the correlation of realness and manifoldness. Dr. Marshall offers an important analysis of a troublesome topic, the relation in consciousness of intensity to vividness; what recent psychologists have distinguished as vividness he resolves into a form of intensity seen under peculiar conditions. According to his scheme the self is simply the field of inattention—the most dubious of the larger doctrines of the book. The so-called self which we know in the field of attention, "the empirical ego," is, on the other hand, a "simulacrum" of the self. The "active will is the reaction of the empirical ego upon its object." Amongst the corollaries of his psychology, the author gives us a valuable analysis of our sense of freedom in willing, reconciling it with determinism and thus offering a peaceful adjustment of the long-standing controversy.

The briefest characterization of the work is that among all possible psychologies it stands at the furthest extreme from that of Professor James. The latter fastens on the concrete, the peculiar, the unique. He has a gift for painting the living facts of consciousness. He is resolved to fend off all attempts at theoretic analysis that do less than justice to the individuality of a special fact. He does not give us, he does not deem possible, an all-dominating system. Dr. Marshall's psychology is emphatically "system" and "synthetic." "Consciousness must be looked upon as a vast system of minor psychic systems of enormously intricate relationship." So much is he bent on systematic survey, on setting forth the plan and diagram of relations, that the particular conscious impression, on which Professor James so lovingly lingers, appears as a mere wave in the psychic sea. The world of mind, even of an individual mind, is, for Professor James, in his own phrase, "a pluralistic world." Dr. Marshall is a monist. A psychological world in which a particular perception is called "an emphasis" reminds us of Spinoza's universe, in which a particular object is called a "mode." We are often tempted to call Dr. Marshall the Spinoza of psychology—not, of course, that there is reason to fancy any actual influence whatever upon him from that quarter. He is nothing if not original. The danger of Professor James's treatment was that of losing sight, in describing the individual fact, of that organization of facts which is the aim of science. The danger of Dr. Marshall's treatment is that of occasionally blurring, in the absorbing interest of organization, those individual facts which are the subject-matter of science.

There is no space to enter upon the analyses of the chief mental phenomena offered here. We must call attention, however, to the bold and closely reasoned chapter on Representation. When we say in the conventional phrase that no psychologist or thorough student of psychology can afford to leave the book unstudied, we speak in a literal and emphatic sense. It unmistakably stands among the most important volumes on the subject produced in this country. We find, however, as we read, a certain query arising. It is true, of course, that the activity of any part of the nervous system depends upon that of every other part, but the degree of interdependence of any two parts depends largely on their topographical relations and the existence of "neururgic" tracks connecting them. Now, in Dr. Marshall's account, the special topographical relations of brain, nerves, etc., in the human body are hardly considered at all. One questions whether he has not, in the interest of his quantitative system, made abstraction of certain essential factors that really to some extent interfere with it.

There is another query suggested by the very thoroughness and synthetic grasp of the author's system. Science has made outward nature a purely quantitative and calculable affair by stripping away one after another the appearances that resist this treatment. The qualities of color, smell, taste, sound—these science has dismissed one after another and explained as effects upon us of matter in motion. The qualities left to matter are such only as quantitative science can deal with. All the qualities stripped away as being merely "subjective" are taken over by psychology. Now, Dr. Marshall brings similar scientific methods to bear upon consciousness itself, and reduces it to a continuum of which the attributes can be arranged upon a quantitative scale, like those with which mechanics deals. What has he done, then, with those abrupt differences of quality of which science had to get rid before it reduced the material world to a purely quantitative thing? What does he do with the difference of experienced quality between red, green, a scream, and a toothache? An experience of any one of these is for Dr. Marshall an "emphasis" in the continuum of consciousness. We can understand on his principles to what quantitative influence the rise of such a wave is due. He does not, however, help us to understand why the different emphases in question possess their incommensurable qualities. If psychology could ever find a scale of sensuous quality upon which to arrange all such experiences whatever, could find a quantitative relation of one to the other, such as we now theoretically have for the *timbres* of the different instruments of the orchestra, it would indeed solve a great problem. It would reach the ideal toward which this book takes so large and masterly a step.

The Iron Cardinal: The Romance of Richelieu. By Joseph McCabe. New York: The John McBride Co. $3.50 net.

The number of so-called "popular biographies" of famous historical characters, which pour forth in annually increasing numbers, is a not altogether encouraging sign of the times. Such books must obviously have a wide circulation, and pay well; otherwise they would not be produced. They invariably possess the same attractive features; good type, thick paper, sumptuous illustrations. And yet when one comes to analyze them carefully, one finds scarcely one in a dozen that possesses any permanent value. As a matter of fact, they fall between two stools. They are neither history nor fiction; indeed, it is probable that the very secret of their success lies in the fact that they are a little of both. The average man of today has apparently neither the time nor the inclination to peruse standard historical works, even though they be written as brilliantly as those of Macaulay, Carlyle, or Froude. On the other hand, he does not wish to confess that his reading is entirely restricted to novels. So, as the easiest way out of the difficulty, he seizes upon the "popular" or "romantic" biography, and fancies that he is getting at the central facts of history by a short-cut. The custom is by no means utterly reprehensible. It has long been recognized that one of the best methods of studying history is through biography; and, to take the example before us, the reviewer has no doubt that the average reader will rise after a perusal of Mr. McCabe's book with a much better knowledge of Richelieu than he had when he began it. Yet one cannot help regretting that standard authors are neglected in these days for works of this sort.

Mr. McCabe's book is certainly not worse, and probably somewhat better, than the majority of the class to which it belongs. The author (who has already produced four other biographical works), has obviously read widely in contemporary records, though he shows little discrimination in estimating their

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relative values; and he steers clear of most of the older and more persistent errors concerning Richelieu's career and policy. Indeed, the book is remarkably free from definite misstatements of fact, though the spelling of proper names is often inaccurate, *e. g.*, "Goligai" for "Galigai" (p. 47); "Brisach" for "Breisach" (p. 289). But our main gravamen against Mr. McCabe's work is the impression of Richelieu's career which it must necessarily leave on the reader who knows naught of the man or the period—an impression of backstairs intrigue, feminine jealousies, scandalous love-affairs (*e. g.*, the episode of Buckingham and Anne of Austria, which is related at excessive length, and with unnecessary gusto), and little else. That this was all part and parcel of the Cardinal's life we should be the last to deny; but we question whether any life of Richelieu (even though the author specially warns us that he has chosen "the more picturesque side" of his subject's career) is justified in dwelling on these things to the virtual exclusion of the Diet of Ratisbon, the Thirty Years' War, or the system of central government, which the Cardinal did so much to establish. Should we not get quite as good a conception of the "romance of Richelieu" and at the same time the satisfaction of becoming acquainted with a standard work of permanent importance, by reading Alexander Dumas's "Trois Mousquetaires"?

How to Save Greek and Other Paradoxes of Oxford Reform. By T. C. Snow. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.

Lord Bowen, in the preface to his translation of Virgil, said that professional scholars defending the claims of the classics reminded him of a timid elderly traveller fussing over his luggage at a crowded railway station. The satire hit off the uneasy and undignified impatience of the old-fashioned scholar confronted with the claims of the sciences. In this atmosphere arose the phrase "Compulsory Greek," that unhappy phrase by which Oxford and Cambridge are both distracted intermittently. But one observes that, though the modern classical don has not reverted to the supercilious disdain which preceded the fussy alarm of a generation ago, he no longer apologizes. This is partly because the study of Greek in the United Kingdom has not, after all, declined in the course of the last twenty-five years, but is more serious than ever. There is everywhere at the present day a more widespread and more intelligent recognition of the fact that each generation in its turn must look to Greece, to the analytic and amazingly intelligent Greeks, for the quickening of the spirit to appreciate literature and life. Roman literature, Roman ideals, stand fixed and understood for all time. What we mean by Roman, we know, but what do we mean by Athenian? The history of Greek literature must forever be rewritten, the Greek masterpieces retranslated. Pope's Homer was for the eighteenth century, Mr. Murray's Euripides is for the twentieth; yet just as the one version was not Homer, so is the other not Euripides, but what the modern reader desires to find in Euripides.

Mr. Snow is one who realizes the tried strength of Greek studies and speaks out loud and bold. There ought to be more Greek in Oxford, not less, and no concessions must be made to the idea that a great university should aim at teaching everything. The mission of Oxford is to support just those studies that "have no money in them," and to leave to other universities, Cambridge, for instance, where science has a strong foothold already, to provide for those sons of the upper and middle classes who demand training in medicine, engineering, and manufactures with the minimum of non-professional study. The sciences are to be bowed out of Oxford, even medicine, the school that has so lately been re-created; for Oxford cannot and should not compete with towns that furnish their medical school with hospital experience. On the same principle, the new School of Engineering is, of course, a step in the wrong direction, since Birmingham, only an hour away, has an engineering plant that Oxford can never hope to rival. Agriculture and commerce must be studied in an atmosphere more suitable. All this is in direct opposition to the scheme for Oxford reform proposed by Lord Curzon in the *Morning Post*. Mr. Snow's plan for encouraging Greek is to demand a great deal more reading of the texts and hardly any grammar and composition. Latin prose composition must go:

> When you look at the greater classics on a bookshelf and see how little space they take up, it is both ludicrous and pathetic to remember how little of them the ordinary scholar of a college has read and how poorly qualified he is to go on reading any more. In my own youth my daily preparation was a scramble through perhaps sixty lines of a text and hours of painful hammering at a piece of composition. If only I could have given my Latin prose time to reading the classics, I should have known something about them, and I should still have had my Greek prose time for German and my Latin verse time for Sanskrit. German alone is sufficient reason why boys should leave off composition.

Here is heresy from a distinguished classical don. But Mr. Snow's scheme has lately received the express approval of Gilbert Murray, the regius professor of Greek, and at this rate will soon become orthodox. Oxford's mission is, in fact, to give a literary education, with the classics as an indispensable basis. The youth who does not want this sort of training is recommended to go to one of the fourteen other universities in the kingdom. This sounds like an aristocratic ideal, but Mr. Snow is certainly not arguing for the privileged classes:

> The time when plutocrats are attacking Greek is the time for Socialists to take it up. For, indeed, so long as there continue to be rich and poor, literary studies ought to be the studies of the poor. They are the best way, as I believe, and certainly the cheapest and most portable way, of satisfying the mental and spiritual wants of life. It depends on their education whether they are to get their *circenses* out of gambling and fighting and drinking or at best out of sport and mere frivolity, or out of religion and knowledge and art and politics and poetry and humor and love—in short, out of the components of literature. As Bishop Fraser's friend told him, "Drink is the shortest way out of Ancoats." Give Ancoats a chance and Ancoats will find that Homer is a better way.

The details of Mr. Snow's scheme for remodelling Oxford we cannot give here, nor are they especially interesting to American readers. But it is to be noted that he desires to open the university to classes that have hitherto been excluded, and that he throws overboard with a fine scorn the snobbish ideal, so widespread in England, that the two great universities exist primarily in order to provide a "class-stamp." It is a healthy sign when the distinguished scholars of a unversity like Oxford begin to repudiate the mint-mark of social distinction.

The Expansion of New England. By Lois Kimball Mathews. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $2.50 net.

To a limited circle of students of American history, Mrs. Mathews has for some time been known as the possessor of a remarkable series of maps showing the early roads of the New England and Middle Colonies, the spread of early settlement in the Eastern part of the country, and the westward movement of the frontier. On the basis, apparently, of this collection, and as an outgrowth of the labors incident to the preparation of it, she has now given us a book of unique importance. Local history, though zealously enough pursued these many years, can hardly be said to have yielded, in most hands, results of large general interest. What Mrs. Mathews has done, however, is to show, from an exhaustive study of local material, the forces which from the beginning determined the growth of settlement in New England; the course which the expansion took in the founding of new towns and the opening of natural avenues of communication; the effect of soil, climate, and accessibility, as well as of Indian wars and religious dissensions, upon migration; and the final overflow

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of New England men and women, with their inherited political, social, and religious ideas, into western New York, the Ohio country, and Michigan and Wisconsin.

The wealth of detail here presented is so great that we can do no more than indicate, in the most summary fashion, the broad outlines of the story and some of the principal conclusions reached. While the New England Puritan followed from the beginning the advancing frontier westward, Mrs. Mathews points out that, for a century after the Restoration, expansion radiated from the communities founded prior to that date. By the outbreak of the Revolution, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut had been pretty thoroughly covered by these dispersions, the lower parts of Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont had been occupied, and New England settlements had penetrated into Long Island, New Jersey, and the valley of the Hudson. The period from 1760 to 1775 saw the settlement of the Wyoming valley in Pennsylvania, the migration of Nantucket Quakers to Guilford County, North Carolina, and the ill-fated Phineas Lyman colony near Natchez, Mississippi. The war checked the movement only where actual hostilities took place; and, with the advent of peace, the stream of expansion spread into the hitherto thinly settled portions of northern New England and into the "Western Reserve," moving on after the War of 1812 into Indiana and Illinois. There was never a large New England element in Indiana, probably because of the presence of considerable numbers of emigrants from the South; but the movement into that State continued until 1840, and into Illinois until 1850. After 1840, however, the stream begins to flow strongly northward into Michigan and Wisconsin, from whence it later continues westward beyond the Mississippi into Iowa, Kansas, and Minnesota, and even to Washington and Oregon.

Of the migration of single families Mrs. Mathews, for the most part, very properly takes little account, since only in exceptional cases may one family be expected to become the spring of any distinctive social influence. It is with the migration of groups of families, or even, as was often the case, of whole churches or organized colonies, that we can observe important results in the establishment of New England towns, with their town meetings and democratic institutions, their churches, schools, and colleges, and their active interest in politics. The factors which have determined this orderly migration have been, first and foremost, the desire for fertile and cheap land, with its resulting possibility of an improvement of material condition; and, secondarily, a desire to escape from political or ecclesiastical controversy or from the domination of a political party. The disestablishment of the Congregational Church in Massachusetts and Connecticut, with the consequent extension of the franchise and final obliteration of the relics of Federalism, is one of the more striking illustrations of the way in which the frontier spirit, ever restless under the pretensions of tradition and caste, made itself felt; while the repudiation of John Quincy Adams and the enthronement of Jackson are to be ascribed largely to the same cause.

The labor involved in the preparation of this volume has obviously been very great. Town and county histories, biographies and genealogies, sermons and memorial addresses, guide-books, newspapers, and manuscripts have all been laid under contribution. Of the more important parts of this material account is given in bibliographical notes appended to the several chapters. The twenty-nine maps showing the location and extent of New England settlement at various dates and in various parts of the country, are in the highest degree informing, the only criticism to be passed upon them being that they are, in a number of instances, too small to be used easily without a glass. There is a good index.

Memories of Fifty Years. By Lady St. Helier (Mary Jeune). London: Edwin Arnold.

The Correspondence of Priscilla, Countess of Westmoreland. Edited by her daughter, Lady Rose Weigall. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $5 net.

Lady St. Helier, better known as Lady Jeune, has made a contribution to the body of *mémoires pour ne servir à rien*, in which modern English literature is peculiarly rich. Her book is a prolonged " society column," giving the hostess an opportunity to chronicle the success of her own dinner-parties, and to say to posterity, "I shall never forget my pride the first time Lord Beaconsfield dined with me, . . . nor the delight with which I heard that the House had been counted out earlier, so that many members of Parliament were able to come to my evening party." She must be credited, in contrast with some other authors of the same class, with an entire absence of scandal, doubly meritorious in the wife of the famous judge of the Divorce Court. Nor does she claim to have had an offer of marriage from Disraeli. Otherwise her right to distinction must rest on an occasional novel historical dictum, such as that Judah P. Benjamin had "attained to the highest legal position in his own country—that, namely, of Attorney-General to the Southern Confederacy"; or on a contribution to the terminology of ethnic science, as when she says of M. de Blowitz, who resented being called a Jew, that "his descent was cosmopolitan."

Of very different value is the correspondence of Lady Westmoreland. Priscilla Pole, born in 1793, was niece to the Duke of Wellington and the Marquis Wellesley. At the age of eighteen, she married Lord Burgersh, afterwards Earl of Westmoreland, who filled a succession of important diplomatic posts. Through her own connections and her husband's profession, she was constantly in touch with great affairs and became an example of what is, pernaps, the most characteristic, as well as the most striking type of Englishwoman, and one which should be carefully studied by all who are anxious to see women take part in political life. She was trained as carefully as though she were destined for diplomacy in her own person. When she was married, she had already, her daughter says, "the habit of society, a perfect knowledge of French and Italian, and a good general idea of the leading questions of the day." She was beautiful, which hurts nothing, and enough of her character appears in the carefully selected letters to explain the friendship entertained for her by the most important men and women of her time. Intimate letters from Count Pozzo di Borgo, attached in 1813 to the court of the Emperor of Russia, from Mme. de Staël and Schlegel, from Meyerbeer and Humboldt, from the King and Queen of the Belgians, give deeply interesting glimpses of the personages of the early nineteenth century. Pozzo reflects the impression the great Corinne made on her contemporaries. He will not give her a letter of introduction to Lady Burgersh, because she is too overwhelming. "The good qualities, the faults, the weaknesses, the cleverness, and the talents of Madame de Staël subdivided and distributed might have formed a whole population of amiable and attractive women, but all united in one have produced a kind of monster."

Lady Westmoreland's own letters give continuity to the moving picture. When her husband is abroad without her, she sends him a systematic account of political conditions in England, so clear, so just, so well-reasoned, so carefully based on first-hand information, given her with confidence by very great people, that it is plain she was an invaluable *chargée d'affaires.*

The Idea of a Free Church. By Henry Sturt. New York: The Walter Scott Publishing Co.

This is a remarkable book, all the more remarkable as coming from a member of the University of Oxford. Its purpose is stated in the following words:

The task which the present book proposes is to suggest a religion and a church more satisfactory than the Christian. It is inspired by the conviction that our established religion is now utterly insufficient to satisfy a thoughtful mind, and that

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all progress, moral and intellectual, demands that Christianity should be given up and replaced by something better.

It contains a very severe arraignment of Christianity on religious, moral, and historical grounds, and proposes a new and "free religion" to take its place. The elements in Christianity which the author most dislikes are its humility, its femininity, and its asceticism. He emphasizes the worth and dignity and freedom of man, and would have a masculine religion, summoning men to stand upon their feet and inspiring them to manly labor in and for this world. Religion, he says, should not "strive to reduce man's strength and his pride in his strength and his will to live; it should rather encourage him therein." Its true function is to stimulate him to enterprise and aspiration. Great emphasis is laid on public spirit, patriotism, and social service, and there are many stimulating passages on the importance of resolute and vigorous realization of high ethical ideals. But the criticism of Christianity is shallow and in large part misplaced. If it were only what the author represents it to be, it might indeed merit condemnation by modern men. But he takes account of its worst and weakest elements alone, and fails altogether to do justice, for instance, to the inspiration of its ideal of the Kingdom of God on earth, which is coming to mean much in modern Christian thought and life as it did in the teaching and work of Jesus Christ himself.

The striking thing about the book is not the author's estimate of Christianity, for in this he is representative of a modern tendency which was already widespread in the eighteenth century; the striking thing is that he is a zealous champion of religion. He would not do without it as would so many modern men, whose general attitude is like his. He thinks religion important, and he spends a considerable part of his book in defining what he regards as right religion and in defending its claims. He is an enthusiast for a religion which shall really meet the needs of the modern man and which shall appeal particularly to the intellectual and cultured classes. "The most superficial observer," he says, "cannot fail to see an immense and old established evil—all the thoughtful people in one camp and all the religious people in another. What an enterprise is here to set the imagination aflame: what a Macedonia is this calling Come over and help us—salvation to nations wrestling doubtfully against a hateful tyranny: light and hope and peace to souls threatened on either side by the grim spectres of superstition and atheism." Religion, as he defines it, means faith in God and coöperation with Him in the promotion of human progress and welfare:

The fundamental principle of right religion, then, I take to be the conviction that man can do something for God. The man with right religion regards human life not as isolated, but as forming part of the cosmic system of which God is the intelligent mover. The ultimate meaning of our freedom is that we are free to help in the cosmic system.

The book is vigorously written and deserves reading, especially by Christian preachers and teachers, just because it represents a common spirit and attitude with which they must reckon.

Notes.

"The Life of Mary Lyon," by Beth B. Gilchrist, is announced for publication this week by Houghton Mifflin Company.

"Psychology in Common Life," "Character and Temperament," and "The Health of the Mind" are books which the Appletons will soon publish under the editorship of Prof. Joseph Jastrow of the University of Wisconsin.

The imperturbable Baedeker has brought his "Great Britain" to a seventh edition for the year 1910. The book in its English form is written by J. F. Muirhead, who also writes "The United States"; it is imported by Chas. Scribner's Sons. To attempt to review Baedeker would be like trying to review a great phenomenon of nature. We observe that Mr. Muirhead in the preface alludes to a separate volume on Scotland which he hopes to publish on some future occasion.

The University of Chicago Press issues a second edition of its "Manual of Style," with revisions suggested by its greater experience in publishing a large number of books in a variety of fields. Printing offices differ in a number of rules; for instance, the University of Chicago Press italicizes titles of books, whereas many other presses mark them by quotation marks. But, bearing these exceptions in mind, every writer will be profited by going through this little book with care, when preparing his manuscript for the press.

Kurdistan is described in the *Geographical Journal* for April, by Capt. B. Dickson, as a paradise for the archæologist. On one mountain which he visited he found "every variety of architecture, from the cave of the Troglodites to the mud hut of the Kurd, with Assyrian, Persian, Greek, Roman, Arab, and Seljuk intervening." The most marked characteristic of the present inhabitants is their absolute lack of unity, each separate village being of a different nationality and religion from its next-door neighbor. Problems of Central Asian exploration are discussed by Ellsworth Huntington of Yale, a leading authority on the subject, "the most fruitful and fascinating" of which is the determination of the effect of physical environment on the distribution of human occupations and modes of life, and also of political, mental, moral, and religious characteristics. An earnest plea for the better teaching of geography is presented by R. H. Whitbeck, University of Wisconsin. He advocates the humanized course as being rich in content, more valuable in giving culture and more liberalizing in its influence than the old-fashioned method of instruction in physical geography.

A. R. Orage's little book, entitled "Nietzsche in Outline and Aphorism" (McClurg & Co.) may be recommended as on the whole the easiest *vade mecum* to that German phenomenon. The plan of the work is simple and orderly. An historical introduction is followed by a set of selected aphorisms under the head of Definitions. Then come a series of brief explanatory introductions, each followed by its appropriate quotations. The titles of these sections are: Philosophy; Life; Man and Woman; Art; Morality; Good and Evil; Willing, Valuing, and Creating; Superman; New Commandments. Nietzsche is at his best in these bullet-like aphorisms, and those here gathered far and wide from his works may be read profitably, without any thought of a systematic philosophy. It is a question, indeed, whether any attempt to read a system into Nietzsche's writings is not contrary to the spasmodic nature of his genius, although there can be no doubt in regard to his relation to certain main currents of thought in the nineteenth century. Mr. Orage is a disciple of Nietzsche, to whom he pays reverence as to the prophet of the future. But he is an honest expositor, and the alert reader, by going through these introductions and comparing the various aspects of Nietzsche's philosophy, will have no difficulty in determining the place of that philosophy, and in laying his finger on its weakness.

It would be dangerous to say that any book about the great Johnsonian group was superfluous, but the word disappointing can safely be applied to A. M. Broadley's "Dr. Johnson and Mrs. Thrale" (Lane). The book belongs to a tendency very manifest of late years to exalt Mrs. Thrale at the expense of Johnson, although, in the present case, there is no endeavor to treat the gentleman with the sort of irate contempt which was so noticeable in F. Frankfort Moore's "Georgian Pageant." The occasion of the book was the sale of the Piozzi MSS. at Sotheby's, June 4, 1908, and the celebration of Johnson's bi-centenary at Lichfield, September 15, 1909. Among the MSS. dispersed was an unpublished and hitherto unknown "Welch Journal, 1774," by Mrs. Thrale, which gave an account of her journey through Wales in company with Dr. Johnson, her husband, and her eldest daughter. This document was bought by Mr. Broadley and forms the heart of the present volume. Johnson's "Diary" of the same journey is printed with it, together with scrappy and quite unnecessary chapters on the two diarists. We are glad to have Mrs. Thrale's "Journal." It is not particularly interesting, but it presents the lady as a most amiable, if at times rather bored, person, showing her as an attentive mother, and thus dispelling some of the opprobrium that has settled upon her for maternal indifference. On the return of the party she was carried by her husband, on account of a Parliamentary election, to Southwark, and not to Streatham. The closing words of her "Journal" afford a vivid glimpse into the gloomier side of her life:

I thought to have lived at Streatham in quiet and comfort, have kissed my children and cuffed them by turns, and had a place always for them to play in, and here I

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must be shut up in that odious dungeon, where nobody will come near me, the children are to be sick for want of air, *and I am never to see a face but Mr. Johnson's.* Oh, what a life that is! and how truly do I abhor it! At noon, however, I saw my Girls and thought Susan vastly improved. At evening I saw my Boys and liked them very well, too. How much is there always to thank God for! but I dare not enjoy poor Streatham lest I should be forced to quit it.

These words of Mrs. Thrale are not the only indication that she had grown weary of the great lion who had made her salon one of the most notable features of the literary society of the day. They prepare for the rupture that was to follow when she announced her intention to take the Italian singer, Piozzi, as her second husband. From thence the tears. In an "Essay Introductory," contributed by Thomas Seccombe, this old question of the rupture between Mrs. Thrale and Dr. Johnson is again argued, and the blame, on the whole, is laid upon the gentleman's shoulders. That Johnson displayed, through vanity, or some other cause, even more than his wonted bearishness, cannot be gainsaid. His first letter to her on hearing of the marriage was a monstrous insult, and was nobly answered. The objections to Piozzi, so far as we can see now, merely displayed the British insularity and snobbishness of the day. All this we can grant to the supporters of Mrs. Piozzi. But there are other aspects of the case which should not be ignored. Her feeling in old age for the handsome young player, Conway, may have been merely a "sentimental caprice," as Mr. Seccombe calls it, but its fantastic expression leads one to surmise that her love for Piozzi at the age of forty-three may have been attended with certain marks of infatuation which would quite naturally cause dismay to her friends. However, we have no objection to any chivalrous defence of Mrs. Thrale, so long as justice is maintained for a far more important personage—and this justice Mr. Seccombe, as a good Johnsonian, has tried to respect.

"The Landscape Beautiful," by Frank A. Waugh (Orange Judd Co.), is a medley of rather gushing descriptive writing, of sensible remarks on landscape gardening in which art the writer is an authority, and of confused dallyings with the difficult science of æsthetics. There are many attractive photographic prints of landscapes, natural and artificial. The book is eccentrically printed, without justification of the right-hand edges of the pages. Possibly the serrations symbolize a sky line. The style is absolutely undistinguished, and except for the chapters tracing the history of American landscape gardening, the work seems without essential value. Since it embodies the diffused nature worship of the time, eschews accurate feeling and thinking, and is eminently cheerful in tone, it seems to have the chief requisites for popularity.

Vero Shaw's "Encyclopædia of the Stable" (Dutton) is the work of an authority upon horses and their care, and the information here given is the result of many years of close association with the horse and his breeders. The book should prove particularly valuable to those who are, for the first time, indulging in the pleasure of possessing a stable of their own. Among the illustrations is a copy of a painting of "Old Bill," a horse owned in Edinburgh, made when the animal was fifty-seven years old. The animal died at the extreme age of sixty years.

"Man's belief in immortality is still essentially the same as it was when Socrates trusted himself to it, while he drank the fatal hemlock. It is the irrepressible faith of man in his own survival value." This is the conclusion to which Dr. Newman Smyth arrives in a pleasing and persuasive essay on that religious theme about which, probably, more is written than about any other article of faith, but regarding which there is less to be said that is substantial and convincing. He seeks to show that the convictions of a modern mind do not render belief in personal immortality impossible, but, on the contrary, that a more spiritual and noble confidence in the continuance of life is within reach of the devout soul of to-day than was accessible before the revolutions of modern science ("Modern Belief in Immortality"; Scribner).

Most of the Harmonies of the Gospels leave the student at much pains to single out the phrases and expressions peculiar to the several gospels. The material is there, but comparative study is still difficult. J. M. Thompson, of St. Mary Magdalen College, Oxford, in "The Synoptic Gospels arranged in parallel columns" (Henry Frowde), has arranged the English text of the Revised version so as to allow of comparison verse by verse and word by word. The work is in three parts: Part i follows the order of Mark and adduces the parallels from Matthew and Luke; part ii gives the text of Matthew in the first column; part iii follows the order of Luke. The student of the origin and manner of composition of the gospel story will find this handbook of great value.

The second volume of Hastings's "Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics" (Scribner), containing the titles from Arthur to Bunyan inclusive, follows the lines of Vol. I (see the *Nation* for February 18, 1909). The writers are drawn from all over the world—of the 162 contributors 116 are furnished by the British Empire, 17 by Germany, 12 by this country, and the rest by France, Holland, Belgium, Italy, Sweden, India, Hungary, Finland, and Japan. Combination articles (in which one man supplies an introduction, and the different countries are assigned each to a specialist) are those on Asceticism, Atheism, Atomic Theory, Baptism, Bards, Birth, Blasphemy, Blessedness, Abode of the Blest, Blood-feud, Body. The advantages and disadvantages of this arrangement are obvious. Among the more important articles may be mentioned: Aryan Religion (by O. Schrader), a suggestive survey of what may be considered primitive Indo-European religious beliefs and practices, with the hazardous assertion that the entire social organization of primitive times rests in the last resort on ancestor-worship; Arya Samaj (by Anesaki) and Brahma Samaj (by J. N. Farquhar), the two giving a clear account of the great Hindu theistic movements; Bab, Babis (by E. G. Browne, the best authority on the subject), a much-needed statement of the history of Babism and of its present condition; Bhagavad-Gîta (by R. Garbe) and Bhakti-Marga (by G. N. Grierson), descriptions of a very remarkable and little known phase of Hindu religious thought; Bantu (by E. S. Hartland), Bengal (by W. Crooke), Berbers and North Africa (by R. Basset), Brazil (by L. Spence), surveys of the present state of religion in these countries; Bridge (by G. A. F. Knight), a full and illumining discussion of the beliefs and usages connected with bridges; Baal (by L. B. Paton), a virtually exhaustive collection of the facts relating to this Semitic divine title. As in the first volume, so here there are certain articles that have no references to religion or to ethics; such are Association, Atavism, Atimia, Atrophy, Attraction and Repulsion, Bards, Biology, Blindness, Brain and Mind, and the greater part of Atomic Theory. Points of connection with religious or ethical thought might have been found in all these, and it is difficult to see why they should have been inserted in their present form. Undesirable breaks occur in some of the composite articles: in the Abode of the Blest the Christian view is relegated to Chiliasm and State of the Dead, though comparison of the Christian conception with others would here be valuable (and the separation of the treatment of the abode of the blest from that of the abode of the damned is not fortunate); Hindu asceticism is described in the article Asceticism, but for Vedic asceticism we are referred to the article on Vedic Religion. The article Book of Life (by A. Jeremias) is largely vitiated by the writer's introduction of his grotesque astral theory. The nature of the work makes omissions unavoidable, and there are particular statements and opinions that are open to criticism, but the volume as a whole is a valuable contribution to the history of religious and ethical ideas.

It is probable that there is no single branch of our national industrial organization in which efficiency on the part of all classes of employees is more imperative than that which is concerned with the actual business of transportation. And when we consider that the railway business alone of the United States is carried on by a highly organized army whose numbers are rapidly approaching the two million mark, it is not to be wondered that a conscious movement should now be in progress for increasing their general efficiency. It is only within comparatively recent times, however, that the subject of special education for the railway service has received anything approaching the attention which its importance merits; but the future promises changes of far-reaching significance. The whole question, in its broadest aspects, has been made the object of study by J. Shirley Eaton, formerly statistician of the Lehigh Valley Railroad; and the results of his investigations have recently been published in a highly interesting bulletin of the United States Bureau of Education under the title of "Education for Efficiency in Railroad Service." By way of comparison, this monograph is all the more illuminating when considered in connection with another upon the same general subject prepared by Mr. Eaton a decade earlier, and published in the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1898-99. Ten years ago, as the writer points out, the ideas of railway men upon the subject of special education were extremely diverse. Since then there has been a marked tendency towards crystallization of opinions:

The advance made in the present decade is very surprising to those who may not

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be informed. Ideas of practical men on the subject are now less indefinite and conflicting. The relation between education and efficiency in railroad service is coming to be generally conceded. The most successful managers have seized on its financial import, and in their fiscal policies and operating organizations are giving it recognition. The large educational value of the railroad service itself is being turned to systematic practical account, and the value of educational agencies in preparing for specific industrial efficiency is better understood. The matter has reached the stage of devising best ways and means of applying principles now coming to be generally accepted by the most practical men.

After an extensive examination of the problem involved in the present-day situation, Mr. Eaton proceeds to outline a scheme looking towards an improvement of present conditions. In brief, the conclusions arrived at are that railway managers should adopt an educational programme as a clearly defined part of their general policy; that the programme thus initiated should be put into the hands of a superintendent who should be responsible to an official ranking high in the service; that this superintendent of education should cooperate and join forces with every outside educational agency, in all matters concerning which it might be practicable to do so; that the system of graded apprenticeship should be extended so as to cover ultimately every department of the service, and that separate and apart from the wage based upon seniority there should be an efficiency wage, based upon the actual service of the employee.

In 1868, the year after the expiration of Cotta's exclusive right to publish Goethe's works, the Berlin publisher, Hempel, began to issue his oft-cited edition in thirty-six "parts," the last volume of which appeared in 1879. Though long distinguished for its carefully-edited text and scholarly introductions and commentaries, this edition has of late years called for revision. Bong & Co. of Berlin have recently begun to issue their complete edition based upon it, the so-called Goldene Klassiker Ausgabe, with new introductions and commentaries, that are to embody the important results of discovery and investigation during the intervening thirty years, supplemented by fresh contributions from a large corps of editors under the general supervision of Karl Alt. The edition is called complete, though it is to comprise neither letters nor diaries, and will exclude the less important scientific writings. The arrangement is the traditional one, according to subject and form, rather than the chronological order which is becoming so popular with other publishers. The introduction and text (forty "parts") are to occupy seventeen volumes, while volumes eighteen and nineteen are to be devoted to commentary, and volume twenty to a comprehensive index. The set is advertised at prices ranging from a mark and a half a volume unbound, to four marks for the best paper and binding. From three to six volumes are promised annually, and the final volume is to be out before Christmas, 1912. Of this edition there have appeared thus far Vols. III, IV, and XI, the eight "parts" of which are edited by Robert Riemann, Eduard Scheidemantel, Karl Alt, Christian Waas, and Rudolf Pechel. In the revision of the text the editors seek to strike a mean between the Weimar edition, which follows the edition of last hand, and the Jubiläumsausgabe, which reverted to Goethe's original text, eliminating, so far as possible, the alterations made by Riemer, Eckermann, and Göttling, whom Goethe allowed certain liberties, with regard to the outward form of his works. The introductions are written with a view to the needs of the educated reader. The volumes of the set that will be looked forward to with most interest by Goethe scholars, are those containing the commentary and the index, since these are the only features by means of which the edition can hope to become a real rival of either the Jubiläumsausgabe or the edition of the Bibliographisches Institut, both of which are better printed on better paper, and at the same price per volume, though there are more volumes in the set, forty in the one and thirty in the other.

Dr. Charles Werner's "Aristote et l'idéalisme platonicien" (Paris, Félix Alcan) maintains the tradition of French Aristotelians for neatness of systematic exposition and precision of dialectic. It deals somewhat abstractly with the metaphysical aspects of Aristotle's philosophy, to the neglect of the concrete detail of the treatises on the physical and moral sciences. The main thesis (not wholly novel) is that Aristotle, despite his rejection of Platonism, is essentially a Platonist, and that his doctrine of immanent realism in respect of concepts is exposed to all the objections which he brings against the transcendental realism of Plato, which it is the fashion to call *idealism*. Like Zeller, then, Dr. Werner finds a fundamental contradiction at the base of the Aristotelian philosophy. But he believes that he has defined it more precisely and located it more exactly than Zeller had done. His most original thesis is his contention that God, in the Aristotelian system, is identical with the soul of the universe. A Prime Mover whose one definite function is the rotation of the heavens must be simply the soul of the heavens, that is, the soul of the world. Dr. Werner admits, however, that God is also the collectivity, or world, of the ideas. His final meaning, then, seems to be merely that Aristotle's God is to be conceived pantheistically rather than theistically.

Henry S. Brooks, a journalist and author, died last week, at the age of eighty. He had edited papers in California and had published "Doña Paula's Treasure," "A Catastrophe in Bohemia," and "Progression to Immortality."

Richard Dacre Archer-Hind, the English classical scholar, died recently at Cambridge. He was born in 1849, graduated at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1872, and from 1875 to 1903 was a classical lecturer there. His publications include the "Phædo" and "Timæus," of Plato, and "Translations into Greek"; and he was co-editor of "Cambridge Compositions."

Dr. Ludwig Oelsner, the German historian, died recently in Frankfort, at the age of seventy-eight. His publications include "Der Volkswirtschaftsunterricht auf Schulen," "Kaiser Karls IV Jugendleben von ihm selbst erzählt," and the "Jahrbücher des Fränkischen Reiches unter König Pippin," which he edited for the Historical Commission of the Bavarian Academy of Sciences.

Science.

Airships in Peace and War. By R. P. Hearne, New York: John Lane Company. $3.50 net.

This is a second and greatly enlarged edition of the author's "Aerial Warfare," which appeared about a year ago. When the first edition was prepared in the early months of 1908, the most obvious and important practical use of airships, in the opinion of the writer, was in connection with war; and he attempted to show that their employment for such a purpose, by increasing the possibilities of the horrors of war, by "speeding up" the operations, and by adding to the uncertainty of the ultimate issue, would tend to cause pugnacious nations to think twice before making a formal declaration of hostilities.

The remarkable achievements in the year 1909 of the operators of both flying machines and dirigible balloons—Blériot's crossing of the English Channel; Latham's flight in the suburbs of Berlin; Comte de Lambert's run from Juvisy to Paris; the well-known exploits of the Wright brothers, and numerous other notable flights—greatly widened the scope of aeronautics and opened up numerous other possibilities in aviation which, a few months before, had been considered entirely fanciful. Consequently, Mr. Hearne was prompted to enlarge the contents of his original volume so that his work might show the practical bearings of airships upon the world's future development in times of peace, as well as their utility in times of war. To this end, seven new chapters have been added, in which the leading topics under consideration are the commercial uses of airships, the progress of aeroplane and dirigible balloon construction in 1909 and the new records made, the military trials of the Wright brothers, and the present-day airship fleets of the nations.

A considerable portion of the present second edition is given over to a discussion and elaboration of two ideas which seem to be uppermost in the mind of the writer, viz., that, since the coming of the petrol motor, some seven or eight years ago, aviation has made extraordinarily rapid strides; and that those nations which have given the most pecuniary and moral support to the development of the airship are the very ones which are applying this new arm most zealously to warlike purposes. He loses no opportunity, as occasion offers, to reprimand the government of his own country, England, for what he regards as too great conservatism in all matters pertaining to aviation, and he points out the dangers of such a policy, especially in view of the activities of her continental neighbors—France and Germany.

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The book is written in rather a popular style and is designed to appeal to the "intelligent public"; hence it is, for the most part, free from technical discussions. Its value to the general reader is further enhanced by the inclusion of upwards of seventy well-chosen illustrations. An introduction by Sir Hiram S. Maxim discusses, among other important matters, the relative merits of the Wright and French machines, to the disadvantage of the latter notwithstanding their superior workmanship.

Leonard B. Spencer, for fifteen years in charge of the New York Aquarium, died in this city last Saturday, at the age of seventy-two.

The late Alexander Agassiz bequeathed to Harvard University all of the scientific equipment he had collected; $100,000 to the Harvard Museum for general uses, and $100,000 to be used in publishing memoirs of the United States Fish Commission's expedition in 1891, the Blake expedition of 1877-80, the tropical Pacific expedition of 1899-1900, and the Eastern expedition in 1904-05; to the library of the Lawrence Scientific School, his books on mathematics, chemistry, and physics; to the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, $50,000; to the National Academy of Sciences, $50,000, and to the city of Newport, 25,000, to be used by the manual training and scientific departments of the public schools. Harvard, it is said, has a reversionary interest under the will by which, in the event of the death without issue of any of Agassiz's children, and in the natural course of events, it will eventually receive at least a million dollars from the estate.

Drama.

THE LESSON OF THE STRATFORD FESTIVAL.

The programme of the annual Shakespeare Festival, which begins at Stratford-on-Avon to-morrow, is one of the most striking and encouraging theatrical documents that have been published in a long time, and suggests a few reflections on the general dramatic situation here and in England, and especially upon the true nature of a stock company and the substantial results that may be accomplished by even one such organization. All true lovers of the stage know, of course, that the American theatre, chiefly owing to a purely commercial and essentially vicious system of management, is, and long has been, in a degenerate state. The artificial manufacture of stars, the policy of long runs, the virtual elimination of wholesome competition and of the means of histrionic education, have had disastrous effect upon both playwrights and players. It is an old and familiar story. But there are signs here and there of coming changes, and of a possible regeneration. The number of syndicates is increasing, and the effect of growing rivalry must almost certainly be beneficial. The intrusion of the music hall into the dramatic field is welcome for the same reason. Another significant incident is the sudden realization by that astute theatrical strategist, Mr. Charles Frohman, of the virtues of the repertory theatre. Should he find profit in his experiment, he will not fail to repeat it, and any revision of his present policy would have far-reaching consequences.

The New Theatre in this city has furnished an impressive object lesson to a generation ignorant of the true scope and power of a permanent company, but cannot be said to have illustrated all the potential value of such a body. Thus far it has been stronger in suggestion than in fulfilment. It has demonstrated some of the virtues of the stock company, but not all, or the most important. What money can do, it has done. It has offered in rapid succession many plays of widely divergent types, in luxurious and appropriate setting, with casts of level excellence, and with admirable attention to all the minor but highly important details of stage management. But it is still engaged upon preliminaries, which ought to have been completed before the first performance was given. As yet, it possesses only the nucleus of a company. It is not yet a perfect, self-sufficient entity, equal to all the demands of its own programme. Until the day comes when it is no longer obliged to engage special performers for the most important parts in its productions, but is able to supply from its own members players capable of interpreting the most diverse and exacting characters—players trained and developed under its own direction—it cannot be rightfully regarded, or judged, as a stock company, with all that that title implies. There is no reason to doubt that it will become one in time. This is the end for which its directors are understood to be working. But not until it has assumed a more definite shape will it be possible to estimate its potency as a school of acting.

There are critics who hold that the importance of stock companies as training schools has been overrated. Upon them rests the burden of explaining why it is that the race of great actors, either in tragedy or comedy, gradually died out with the disappearance of those institutions, and how it happens that nearly all the really superior performers of to-day learned the rudiments of their art in similar establishments. The last of them vanished in this country with the death of Daly years ago, while in England there have been few of any consequence in the last generation. During that period there were two or three good stock houses in the provinces, and Irving once kept a good company to support himself and Ellen Terry. The companies maintained by Tree, Alexander, Bourchier, and other stars have had nothing in common with the stock principles and have been essentially unproductive. This is why the life work of Mr. F. R. Benson has been so extraordinarily important. Nothing in the theatrical world of England has been comparable with it since the famous reign of Phelps at Sadler's Wells. It is scarcely too much to say that he has done more for the cause of the poetic drama and of good acting than any other man of his time, Henry Irving not excepted. The latter did noble work, but, in turn, the personal motive was always dominant. Mr. Benson, never a great actor, has given all his best years to Shakespeare in a spirit of devotion to the poet and to his own profession. When he left Oxford, in the seventies, he organized what long ago became the best stock company in existence, although recruited mainly from amateurs; and ever since he has been acting Shakespeare up and down the land, winning renown in all the larger cities, and, at the last, appreciation in London. For twenty-four years he has directed the annual festival at Stratford, presenting, in that time, some thirty of Shakespeare's plays, and chiefly with his own performers. His representations, in which he himself plays many parts, are notable, not so much for brilliancy on the part of particular actors, as for their vigor, vitality, intelligence and full Shakespearean flavor. London managers were quick to discover that his company was an unfailing source of supply, whenever they were in need of a good actor, and have never hesitated to deplete his forces. Most of the rising young actors in London are ex-Bensonians, but he seems always able to fill his vacancies. His vindication of the stock-company principle is triumphant. He has created a school whose graduates need no other certificate of general acting proficiency than the proof of their service with him. Among them may be mentioned Oscar Asche, Henry Ainley, Mattheson Lang, Alfred Brydone, J. B. Fagan, Otho Stuart, Charles Quartermaine, E. Lyall Swete, and the lamented Weir.

There can be no doubt that his labors are bearing fruit. The Shakespeare Festival of Stratford, of which he is the inspiring genius, has now acquired an international fame. Shakespeare lovers can enjoy no such feast elsewhere. Sir Herbert Tree has paid it the compliment of imitation. The prominent London "stars" are eager to be associated with it. Among the performers this year are Tree, Bourchier, Waller, Martin Harvey, Ellen Terry, and Genevieve Ward, not to mention lesser lights. But the solid foundation is supplied by the Bensonians. The programme includes no less than sixteen of Shakespeare's plays, "The School for Scandal," "The Knight of the Burning Pestle" of Beaumont and Fletcher, and the prize play, "The Pip-

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er," by the American poetess Josephine Preston Peabody. One day, the performances will be furnished by Old Bensonians exclusively, and there could be no more convincing evidence of the solidity of their founder's achievement. He has set an inspiring example and enforced a pregnant lesson, which is that the creation of actors is the first step towards a revival of the higher drama.

Brieux's "The Three Daughters of M. Dupont," which Laurence Irving has produced in the Comedy Theatre, is a clever, purposeful, and in some respects impressive, play, but deals with conditions so essentially French, and illustrates them in so extravagant a fashion, that it cannot be regarded as an especially valuable or timely addition to English stage literature. In offering a translation of it Mr. Irving shows praiseworthy respect for the author, but he might easily have made the piece more attractive and significant to English-speaking audiences by a little judicious adaptation. Even in France, where the *mariage de convenance* is favored both by law and custom, parental authority is not always callously indifferent to the personal inclinations of the contracting parties, nor are the results of such unions always disgraceful or tragic. On the contrary, domestic happiness is just as common in France as in any other civilized country. M. Brieux, like many other enthusiasts, weakens a good cause by overstating it, and trying to deduce a general rule from exceptional instances. His M. Dupont is the embodiment of cunning, tyrannical, hypocritical selfishness. One daughter, betrayed in early youth, he turned out upon the streets, with the inevitable consequences. The second, doomed to hopeless spinsterhood by his heartless greed, has become a withered devotee. The youngest, and prettiest, in the hope of a prospective legacy, he delivers into the hands of a notoriously heartless profligate, whom he deliberately cheats in making the bargain. Of such a marriage, of course, there could be but one issue, but in depicting the climactic quarrel between the young wife, maddened by the realization of her husband's grossness and her own degradation, M. Brieux breaks all the laws of artistic reticence and offends against good taste and probabilities. The violence in word and action in this scene would be excessive even in melodrama. After this the final reconciliation, with which the play ends, falls little short of the ridiculous. Such a tale would culminate more fitly in murder and suicide.

The Russian actress, Mme. Nazimova, furnished one more example of her great versatility when she appeared, in her new theatre here on Monday evening, as Rita Allmers in Ibsen's disagreeable play "Little Eyolf." Her impersonation, if it had little that was distinctively Norwegian or Ibsenian about it, was entirely distinct from either her Nora or Hedda, and as an exhibition of pure acting power was exceedingly striking. Her exact position in the artistic world cannot be determined until she has been tested in characters of more exacting quality than any of the eccentric or grotesque parts in which she has won her present reputation, but there can be no question that she has a positive genius in the invention of appropriate and effective pose and of delicate, varied, and illuminative by-play. She was applauded rapturously for some of her most elaborated effects—as in the passionate scenes with her husband, and her horror and collapse at the death of Eyolf—but it was in her periods of silence, when she was comparatively in the background, that some of her best work was done. Her denotement of her personal interest in the business of the scene, by the slightest facial changes or by apparently unconscious movements of the hands or fingers, is singularly subtle. She never drops out of her part for an instant, and her "business" shows great imaginative ingenuity. With each succeeding impersonation she confirms previous impressions of her rare abilities, but thus far she has only played supremely well in second-class characters. Until she gets clear of the Ibsen drama, which offers nothing beyond the capacity of the ordinary actor, it will be impossible to determine her exact standing as an actress.

Music.

TOO MUCH MUSIC?

Time was when, as soon as the opera season ended, concert givers rushed into the music halls like waters that had been held back by a dam. Nothing of the sort has happened this year; with the exception of Wüllner's farewell, on Tuesday of last week, which closed the musical year 1909-10, no concert of any importance has been given since the Metropolitan Opera Company, which outlasted the Manhattan by a week, closed its doors and departed for Boston and the West. Concerts are seldom as popular as operas; and, inasmuch as even the opera had been obliged, during its last few weeks, to rely on Russian dancers for most of its large audiences, the concert-givers wisely concluded that they had better hie them to Europe, where the season lasts four months longer than on this side of the Atlantic.

If the situation shows conclusively that New York has had too much music during the last six months, the musicians need not be alarmed, for the conditions were exceptional, and will not be the same next season. For three years this city was able to support two opera houses in addition to the usual number of concerts; trouble came when both the opera companies nearly doubled the number of their performances and the Philharmonic Orchestra at the same time gave considerably more than twice the usual number of concerts. Next autumn Mr. Hammerstein will have no extra Opéra Comique company, and Mr. Gatti-Casazza will not run opposition to himself by giving simultaneous performances at the Metropolitan and the New Theatre or the Brooklyn Academy. That will make a difference. The Philharmonic Society also has decided to reduce the number of its offerings by about a dozen. What with the concerts of the New York and Boston Symphony Orchestras, the Russian and Volpe bands, the multitudinous Sunday entertainments at the opera houses, the choral performances, and the recitals of singers, pianists, and violinists, there will still be more than enough. But there will be less of a glut in the operatic and orchestral branches, in which we have tried, during the past six months, to surpass all European cities, quantitatively as well as qualitatively, with somewhat discouraging results.

It should be borne in mind that the consequences of such overproduction would have been the same in London or Paris, Berlin or Munich. Tickets for extra concerts are hard to dispose of everywhere. As Mme. Schumann-Heink once remarked: "The music-lovers of the large German cities set aside a certain amount for concerts each season, and they attend the regular subscription series in their own towns, and won't spend a penny more for anything else."

Probably orchestral concerts not included in the regular subscription series would be better patronized if an effort were made to consult the taste of the public. *Vox populi* is not necessarily *vox dei*, nor is it necessarily vulgar, as professional prigs assume. At the opera houses public taste is studiously consulted, and it is borne in mind that there are audiences and audiences. Some want Luisa Tetrazzini in "Lucia" or "La Traviata," others want Mary Garden and Maurice Renaud in "Thaïs" or the "Jongleur," while still others are willing to pay, once or twice, to hear sensational novelties, like "Elektra" and "Salome." All these tastes are catered to.

This sensible and profitable method of feeling the public's pulse does not prevail in concert halls. On the contrary, the singers and players and the orchestral conductors seem to take a special delight in inflicting on the public precisely and persistently what it does not want. Cacophonists and mathematicians have the place of honor, while the melodious masters, whom the public desires to hear above all, are, for the most part, ignored. When "Pelléas et Mélisande" was first produced in this city, the prediction was made that its life would be short. It was given seven times that winter, three times this season, and that probably ends its career. The absence of melody (intentional in this case) killed it. In the realm of concert music the banishment of unmelodious works is less prompt because the programmes are usually mixed. Beethoven, Tchaikovsky, and Wagner thus help to float pieces that, unaided, would soon sink out of sight. It is significant that while nearly every programme has a Richard Strauss piece, no conductor dares to give a special Richard Strauss concert.

The public would infinitely prefer Johann Strauss to Richard; Wagner

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agreed with Brahms in his ardent admiration of Strauss's waltzes, and Bülow urged their inclusion in symphony concert programmes. But "dignity" must be preserved, though the concert-halls remain empty. At the Paderewski recitals nothing arouses more enthusiasm than the Liszt rhapsodies. They have been admirably orchestrated, and if played at symphony concerts would do much to attract the public. Liszt's other works are too much neglected; so are the symphonic poems and symphonies of Saint-Saëns, and Dvořák's overtures and symphonies—melodious all, and beautifully colored. The "Peer Gynt" suites are second in popularity to no music ever written, and often played, but there are a dozen other works of Grieg's, equally beautiful and of the same popular character, yet never performed. The Brahms "Hungarian Dances" have not been played for years, nor Rubinstein's "Feramors" and "Nero" ballet music and his Bal Costumé, and Bizet's "L'Arlésienne" suites. In all these there is abundant melody. If the conductors put more of this kind of music on their programmes and the singers selected the melodious songs instead of the declamatory kind, the impression that too much music is offered to the public would soon disappear.

Some Musical Recollections of Fifty Years. By Richard Hoffman. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50 net.

Richard Wagner in Bayreuth. Erinnerungen gesammelt von Dr. H. Schmidt und U. Hartmann. Leipzig: Carl Klinner.

When Mendelssohn's "Elijah" had its first performance, at the Birmingham Festival of 1846, under the composer's own direction, the organist was Dr. Gauntlet, and the stops were pulled out for him by a lad of fourteen, named Richard Hoffman, who, in the following year, emigrated to New York. He soon became one of its most eminent musicians, but none of the later honors made him feel so proud as the recollection of having taken a part, however humble, in that first performance of Mendelssohn's masterwork. The organist appears to have been somewhat refractory, for when the composer said to him, "Not so loud," and asked him to push in certain stops, Gauntlet asked the boy to pull them out again as soon as the other's back was turned. In his "Recollections," Richard Hoffman notes the odd fact that Mendelssohn would seldom beat more than the first sixteen or twenty-four bars of an overture or movement from a symphony. He would then lay down his bâton and listen, often applauding with the audience, and not beating time again until he wanted an acceleration or retarding of the pace, or some other effect not noted in the parts.

When Barnum brought Jenny Lind to the United States, in 1850, he engaged Richard Hoffman as pianist for the company. This not only gave him a prominence and experience that years of ordinary work would not have brought, but had a most salutary effect on his musical education, besides providing him with much interesting material for the "Recollections" relating to that great singer's art and diverse incidents. On one occasion Barnum hired the enormous hall over the Fitchburg Railroad Station in Boston. Even that was so crowded that the pianist, having by mistake used the main entrance, could not get out again and had to be lifted up and passed over the heads of the people till he reached the stage.

Among the other musicians with whom Mr. Hoffman became intimate were Thalberg and Gottschalk, both of whom devoted themselves almost entirely to their own compositions or arrangements, and wisely so. Many things were different in those days. Imagine the Philharmonic Orchestra serenading a popular prima donna on her arrival from Europe! That is what happened when Christine Nilsson first came over, in 1870. In that epoch, to be sure, serenading was not an unusual thing. A lover who wanted to pay the girl of his choice a delicate attention would engage a double quartet of male voices, or a brass band, to make music for her in the street after midnight. Mr. Hoffman has quaint things to tell also about Bülow's scrap book, Balfe's way of finding melodies, and many other things. In the appendix, there is an essay of his: "How to stimulate thought and attention in a pupil," which is worth reading. The first fifty-nine pages of this volume contain a biographic sketch by his widow, from which the following, relating to Hoffman's father, may be cited: "When he was seventy-five, I heard him play all the scales on the piano with remarkable velocity, and with a wine-glass full of water on the back of one hand, never spilling a drop, nor moving the glass."

Recollections of Richard Wagner during the ten years he lived in Bayreuth make up most of the book by Schmidt and Hartmann—not the reminiscences of artists, but of the humble town folk who helped the great composer build his villa, fill it with furniture and books, make the garden, and so forth. In the various anecdotes related we see him as a friend and protector of the poor, a lover of animals, an irascible, yet kind-hearted employer, a democratic citizen, a clubman who prefers solitude, an indulgent friend of bandmasters, and divers other things, including the digger of his own grave before his house was finished. Of particular interest are the details given by the bookbinder who helped him give his library the luxurious aspect on which so many eminent visitors have commented. Christian Senfft was his name, and the visitors carried his fame to all parts of Europe, so that he received orders from far-away cities like Vienna and St. Petersburg. He frankly admits that he owed his success largely to the hints given him by Wagner regarding colors and other details of decoration. Money was no object, $15 for binding a book being nothing unusual. For years Senfft was at Wahnfried nearly every day; not infrequently the composer would suddenly stop, strike some chords on the piano, jot down a few notes, and then resume the conversation.

The name of Anton Seidl appears often in these reminiscences; to him Wagner generally entrusted the rehearsing of special performances on social occasions, and also the making of excerpts from the Wagner dramas for the bands, which did much to familiarize the German nation with this new style of music. That Wagner composed six fanfares for one of the Bayreuth bands will be news to the best-informed of his admirers; it would be interesting to hear them. How he taught four trombonists to play the Grail motive in "Parsifal" is told in an instructive section, and other pages describe his joy over the new viola, invented by Hermann Ritter. In this case, another had provided the special tone quality he had desired; in others he had to invent it. On pp. 112 and 114 we read how he went to work to get the realistic tone he wanted for the ox-horn blown by Hagen in "Götterdämmerung," and how he made a prominent piano manufacturer construct a special instrument for the chimes in "Parsifal."

American composers are not the only ones who complain of being neglected in their own country. The Parisian publisher, Jacques Durand, has undertaken to give four Thursday evening concerts at which the best of the works printed by him are performed. Among the composers represented are Debussy, d'Indy, Dukas, Ducasse, Ravel, Louis Aubert, René Baton, and Saint Saëns, whose C minor symphony gave the impression of being the fountain head of contemporary French music.

Americans going abroad this summer will have a number of music festivals at their command. Munich, in particular, is making great efforts to attract tourists. Besides the usual Wagner and Mozart festivals in that city there will be concerts, on May 20-30, in commemoration of the centenary of Schumann's birth; a Beethoven-Brahms-Bruckner cycle of twelve "symphonic festival concerts" between August 5 and September 4; a Richard Strauss week, June 23-28; three festival concerts by the Vienna Philharmonic; first performance anywhere of Gustav Mahler's seventh symphony, under the composer's direction. Bonn will have a Schumann-Brahms festival on May 3, 4, and 5.

Julius Blüther, the famous German piano maker, died at Leipzig last week, at the age of eighty-six. He established his piano factory at Leipzig in 1854.

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Art.

THE INTERNATIONAL.

LONDON, April 8.

The International Society, left without a home by the closing of the New Gallery, has opened its tenth exhibition in the Grafton, and is not to be congratulated on its change of headquarters. Indeed, few events could better show how serious to London and to artists is the loss of the New Gallery. The Grafton is not half so well designed for the exhibiting of pictures, while it is not designed at all for the exhibiting of sculpture, and it must be remembered that the full title of the International is the International Society of *Sculptors*, Painters, and Gravers, and that its president is Rodin. Smaller examples of sculpture, of course, can be shown. As it is, a not over remarkable Torse de Femme by Rodin occupies the centre of the little Octagon Room devoted to prints and drawings. In another room the centre is filled by Harry Wilson's Sketch for a Monument, a tomb of imposing architectural proportions adorned by several figures, for which it would be impossible to make place were the monument finished, or even for the different details. A few bronzes, among them two ingenious little Danseuses, by Troubetzkoy, look well enough, scattered throughout the galleries, better certainly than set out in long tedious rows as at the old salon.

There can be no question that in another way the society disregards the obligations of its name, for the international element threatens to vanish with the years: a change for which the Society itself must be held responsible. It was at the beginning, actually as well as nominally, liberal enough to offer artists from abroad the same chances as artists at home, or better if they deserved it. The two Salons in Paris may throw their doors open to artists of every nationality, but the Royal Academy in London has never had much use for any work that is not "made in Great Britain," and the smaller societies, until the International set the example, were as insular. And now the International, as if forgetting that to this liberality it owed the chief interest and importance of its shows, has almost ceased to justify its name, and the artists of most foreign countries are conspicuous by their absence. From America the contributions are but few, and these few come mostly from Americans who at the present moment live on this side of the Atlantic: Pennell, who shows his Pittsburgh and New York etchings, which have already been seen at home; D. S. MacLaughlan, who also has a group of prints; Henry Muhrman, with the landscapes in pastel to which he knows how to give such solemnity and impressiveness; Miss Mary Cassatt, whose one picture, La Tasse de Thé, comes with a group of paintings by the French Impressionists, with whose work hers is now wholly identified. Direct from America there is nothing save a series of four wood-engravings by Henry Wolf, admirable reproductions, especially Whistler's Music Room and the portrait of Stevenson, and further notable as the only wood-engraving in the collection. Germany is virtually unrepresented, for the one notable picture by a German is the excellent and dignified portrait of Cardinal Gibbons by George Sauter, who for years has been a resident of London and a member of the Society's council. From Belgium and Holland, again nothing, except two or three landscapes by W. Bruckman, who, likewise, is a resident of London. From the Scandinavian countries, nothing. From Italy, nothing of note. From Spain, work by Zuloaga alone; but at least this is something to be thankful for. Certainly, if his three pictures are not of Zuloaga's best, they are among the most striking and suggestive from the living contributors to this year's International. There is nothing else as vigorous as his Poète Improvisateur Antonio Llanas, a full-length, life-size study of a Spanish peasant wrapped in a large cloak, bare-headed, a long shepherd's crook in his hand, posing against a landscape background, simple to the point of primitiveness, and under a sky put in with great swirls of the brush, which are so wholly out of keeping with the quiet, almost austere treatment of the rest of the canvas that they seem a bit of bravado to show what the painter could do had he a mind to. The color is sombre; reminiscences of Velasquez are in the type and in the modelling of the head, but the figure has not the spontaneity, the character, the "go" that is the charm of so many of his peasants and gypsies.

I have said nothing as yet of France because it is the one exception, the one country which does make some sort of a representation, and for which space is generously spared. Greater advantage might have been taken of this generosity. The French group is made up of the Impressionists who belong to an earlier generation and school and who have been seen often in London of recent years, and of a few of the more distinguished men of to-day, who, it is evident, have reserved their more important work for elsewhere, probably for the Salons. Only one picture here calls for mention. This is Manet's Ecce Homo, presumably the picture catalogued in M. Duret's book as Jésus Insulté, which was hung with the Olympia in the Salon of 1865, the ridicule both received from a bewildered public embittering Manet far more than even the laughter excited by his Déjeuner sur l'Herbe, a couple of years earlier at the Salon des Refusés. It does not strike one to-day as at all revolutionary; rather, it "smells" of the Louvre. In it, you feel, as in all Manet's religious pictures, the impersonal attitude of the painter. The subject seems to have been chosen by him because of its interest to the Old Masters, and the treatment seems an exercise in their manner that helps to justify Whistler's description of Manet as always "l'étudiant." But, then, how masterly is this exercise of the student, how fine the flesh tones, how real and living two of the figures, especially the one standing to the left so detached from the scene as to have the air of having been borrowed for the occasion and set down there for the mere pleasure of the painter in painting it! With all the criticism the picture invites, it, infinitely more than the Zuloagas, makes the surrounding work appear sadly lifeless and anæmic, and at the International becomes in its turn an Old Master.

As they are here represented, none of the French artists of later generations can dispute the ascendancy of Manet. Even the men of more independent schools are not as stimulating as often in the past. Vuillard has two studies that arrest attention by their ingenuity and their mastery of difficult problems. One shows a group engaged in a Partie de Dames, looked down upon from a height above; the other, a group round a table, seen in violent perspective. But neither has the beautiful feeling for his medium, for textures, for color, which he sometimes brings to the working out of his problems.

If the British members of the Society showed themselves so strong as to be able to stand alone, the weakening of the foreign element might be overlooked, though it would still be a serious mistake. But this year they cannot of themselves maintain the Society's originally high standard. It is astonishing, how little rises above the general average: one reason, perhaps, is that British members as well as French exhibitors have reserved their more important work for elsewhere. You must look in vain for even the eccentricity that, however absurd or affected or youthful, speaks of experiment or effort or thought. The collection is simply colorless. There is not a portrait of marked distinction. William Strang, who as vice-president occupies one of the chief centres of honor, fairly hurts by his sharpness of color and hardness of surface. William Nicholson could never err in this direction for his is a convention that makes for sobriety and refinement, but he is apt to rely more upon his convention than upon nature, and in his two portraits it has failed him. In the larger of the two, Portrait of Lady Pearson, the figure is placed in a vast expanse of canvas, no doubt to give dignity, but it takes a greater master than Nicholson to fill so large a

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space when it is empty of pictorial incident. Velasquez could, and in his Meniñas the figures lose nothing in size and dignity because they occupy so small a proportion of the canvas, but then, no part of this canvas is empty, filled as it is throughout with atmosphere. Nicholson seldom suggests atmosphere. His portraits are usually decorative arrangements of flat spaces of color. As a consequence, on this huge canvas the figure is dwarfed, which is a pity, for the dress, the silk of the coat, the bunch of pinks stuck in it, the mass of white lace on the near table are all rendered with technical dexterity and delicacy. His other picture, The Conder Room, is an interior with two figures, something in the manner of his portrait group of Lord Plymouth and Family shown a year or so ago. But the figures have scarcely more life than the Conders on the wall. Nor is there any coherent design or scheme of color to bring the decorations of the room into harmonious or any other relation with its occupants. Charles H. Shannon has a portrait of a man so reticent in treatment that the veriest shadow of life in it would seem an impropriety. There is a vivid study of A Manda Lady, by Gerald Kelly. But the one painting of a figure subject that has any real character or force is by William Orpen: a record of something seen to which, as a concession to his Frith-like love of anecdote, he gives the title Living the Life in the West. What he means by this, or whether he means anything except to puzzle the critics, matters little. The merit of the work is in its cleverness as a statement of fact. On the far wall of a room, behind a table littered with papers and draperies and bottles, hangs a gilt-framed mirror reflecting the figure of a young man, evidently Orpen himself, and behind him a window with cool gray light falling through most skilfully painted green Venetian blinds. The values of the objects inside and outside the mirror are rendered with admirable truth. But, after all, it is no more than an amusing study, not a picture. Perhaps in saying this I explain why it tells so strongly at the International. The painter has seen his subject, unpictorial as it may be, for himself with eyes trained to see; he does not merely reëcho the statement of others, nor look for his facts through their eyes instead of his own.

With the landscapes again, one picture alone seems to rise above the average. This one exception is D. Y. Cameron's Marble Quarry, though, even as I write, I feel that I should qualify my praise. It does not show careful observation of fact when examined in detail. It suggests less an intimate and profound study than a vivid memory, carried away from a quarry actually seen, of the contrasting effects of strong shadow and strong light under a romantic sky, and of the picturesque value of machinery and men at work: a memory which, the painter afterwards essayed to realize on canvas without rectifying it by further research on the spot. It is more than a note or an impression, but its elaborate construction savors less of nature and of fact than of the studio. N. N.

A sale of the paintings, sketches, and studies of Carroll Beckwith, who is about to go to Rome, was held at the American Art Galleries, in this city, last week. The pictures sold included The Blacksmith, $300; The Golden Pool, $280; Dawn, $270; and Pastoral, $210. The entire lot of seventy-seven pictures brought $7,500.

An exhibition of thirty-six of the pictures of George B. Luks, at the Macbeth Galleries, in this city, shows that he is nothing if not versatile. Such a raw and drastic study as The Wrestlers would cause a shudder at every tea-pouring in Manhattan. On the other hand, long-haired lecturers will some day pounce upon the Whistlerian mystery and loveliness of The Little Gray Girl. He provides you with such masterpieces of characterization and beautiful painting as "The Duchess," The Old Clothes Man, The Little Milliner, and then produces a series of rather commonplace portraits, distinguished only by a certain probity of workmanship. What he has always is a wholesome love of his materials. He adores paint, plays with it, wrestles with it, scatters it royally upon his canvas. He makes all methods his as he needs them. He has been much praised for his sheer strength. It seems to the present writer his least valuable quality. What is precious in him is a quite tender and sympathetic quality, which takes him to the heart of certain things. Let us insist upon the important point that Mr. Luks is not a realist, except when he is on parade. His quality is visionary and imaginative. His defect is trusting his vision too little, and thinking too much of his biceps and his paint. What an extraordinary invention is Woman and Macaw. Three gorgeous birds stand, or dangle their scarlet, emerald, and lapis finery before an outer obscurity varied by the glitter of a wire net. Between the birds the rubicund vain face of a slatternly woman withdraws itself. What is remarkable spiritually is the juxtaposition of kindred human and animal types. If one cannot follow Mr. Luks in his Rabelaisian mood—and who cannot is to be pitied—one may enjoy him instead in these drastic yet sensitive portraits. In routine portraiture, Mr. Luks is very able. The canvas of E. W. Root, Esq., poised at full length in riding costume, is conventionally handsome. The likeness of Charles Fitzgerald, Esq., the art critic, is remarkably successful in suggesting a quizzically sensitive nature, less so in presenting the palpable effigy of the man. Equally full of character is the head of the writer W. H. Fraser, Esq. Mr. Luks is less satisfactory when dealing with surfaces than when dealing with souls. He is, we have been told, an *enfant terrible*—that awful thing a ruthless realist. He does take a pleasure in frightening timid people by occasionally wearing a horned mask. But look at that justly famous picture, The Spielers. Two ill-conditioned little girls waltz wildly towards you, glorified by the excitement of dance. All the light seems drained from the surrounding air by the flying blonde hair of the larger spieler. The thing is real, but of a transmuted reality. Mr. Luks's brain and heart have had more to do with it than his eye. Nothing is more stirring in the show than the stage scene from "I Pagliacci." Before such a picture there is no need to ask if Mr. Luks is a great painter. Whether he is a great artist or not is a more difficult question, the answer to which cannot as yet be given confidently.

Henry C. Frick has acquired Frans Hals's Portrait of a Woman, which was sold from the Yerkes collection to Knoedler & Co., the New York art dealers, last week, for $137,000, and has installed it in his Fifth Avenue residence in this city.

The National Academy of Design elected last week twenty-three new associate members, as follows: Painters: Robert MacCameron, Mrs. Charlotte B. Coman, Gardner Symons, William Ritchel, Thomas P. Anshutz, Ernest L. Blumenschein, Ralph Clarkson, Edward Dufner, W. Howe Foote, Daniel Garber, De Witt Parshall, W. Merritt Post, and Albert Sterner. Sculptors: Bela L. Pratt and John J. Boyle. Architects: Edmund M. Wheelwright, Robert S. Peabody, Henry J. Hardenbergh, John Galen Howard, Arnold W. Brunnen, Frank Miles Day, Wilson Eyre, and C. Grant La Farge.

Among the American exhibitors at the salon of the Société Nationale des Beaux Arts, opened in Paris last week, were James J. Shannon, Miss Elizabeth Nourse, Miss Florence Upton, Eugene P. Ullman, Myron Barlow, Frederick Frieneske, Miss Ethel Mars, and Julius Rolshoven.

Sir William Quiller Orchardson, R.A., painter of subject pictures and portraits, died last week in London. He had just finished for the coming Academy exhibition a portrait of Edwin Austin Abbey, the American artist. Mr. Orchardson was one of the most popular of modern historical, romantic, and dramatic painters. He was born in Edinburgh in 1835, went to London in 1863, and in the same year exhibited at the Royal Academy for the first time. In the following year he exhibited at the British Institution a figure of Peggy, from Allan Ramsey's "Gentle Shepherd," and at the Royal Academy another Scottish subject entitled Flowers o' the Forest. In 1865 there appeared at the Royal Academy one of the most successful of his Shakespearean illustrations, Hamlet and Ophelia, which was followed in the winter exhibition at the French Gallery, Pall Mall, by The Challenge, which won a prize of £100, given by Mr. Wallace. In 1866 came the striking Story of a Life, which attracted much attention at the Academy—an aged nun relating her life experience to a group of novices; and Christopher Sly, which was exhibited in Mr. Wallis's winter exhibition at the Suffolk Street Galleries. In January, 1868, Orchardson was elected an associate of the Royal Academy, only four years after his arrival in London. He achieved a great success at the Paris Universal Exhibition, where his Challenge and Christopher Sly were greatly admired by French critics, and won for the painter one of the very few medals awarded to English

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artists. He was elected a Royal Academician in 1877, and a D.C.L. of Oxford in 1890. He was knighted in 1907.

Andreas Achenbach, one of the foremost of German landscape painters, died recently in Düsseldorf, at the age of ninety-four. When still a boy he became a pupil of Schadow, at Düsseldorf, where he became associated with his brother, Oswald. He painted chiefly the scenery of Holland and Scandinavia, and examples of his work are to be found in most of the important German collections.

Dr. Henry Thode, the German critic and art-historian, has retired from the position of lecturer on art at Heidelberg, which he has held for sixteen years.

François-Emile Ehrmann, the French painter of historical and classical subjects, died in Paris recently, at the age of seventy-six. He first exhibited at the Salon in 1863, and last year was awarded the Prix Estrade Delcors, valued at 8,000 francs, by the Académie des Beaux-Arts. Several of his designs were reproduced in Gobelin tapestries.

Finance.

AN UNSOLVED PROBLEM.

On Thursday of last week, the government gave out its report on the country's foreign trade in March. Public interest had centred mainly in the question whether that month, like its predecessor, would show the highly abnormal condition, for this country, of an excess of merchandise imports over exports. The March figures not only reported such a condition, but the excess of imports, $19,254,000, was very much the largest shown by any month in twenty years past, except April, 1897, March, 1893, June and July, 1890, and July, 1889.

As every one is aware, this "import excess" began in the three summer months last year; until May, 1909, no month in our history since June, 1897, had shown anything but a surplus of exports over imports. The first comparison, therefore, may profitably set the figures of recent months over against those of the two preceding years, within which time the increase in imports and the decrease of exports have reversed our monthly balance. In the subjoined tables, a monthly excess of exports is printed in ordinary Roman type; excess of imports in heavy figures:

	1910.	1909.	1908.
Jan...	$10,805,007	$53,136,341	$121,117,204
Feb...	**4,368,460**	7,398,208	83,004,381
Mar..	**19,254,613**	6,417,441	52,474,542
Apr...	.....	3,007,185	45,920,129
May..	.....	7,262,243	29,567,750
June..	.....	**7,245,540**	23,262,352
July..	.....	**3,151,402**	16,764,083
Aug..	.....	**7,342,187**	19,259,519
Sept..	.....	32,948,265	40,899,221
Oct...	.....	73,023,992	69,944,428
Nov..	.....	53,489,905	57,337,406
Dec..	.....	33,642,470	76,910,345

These three columns show by what stages the present status has been reached. The earliest monthly figure given—that of January, 1908—was the largest export surplus of any month in our history, before or since. Inasmuch as the five monthly import surpluses of 1909 and 1910 to date were the first that have been witnessed since 1897, it will perhaps be worth while to glance back across the intervening thirteen years. The three years which call for particular study under present circumstances are 1893, 1895, and 1897. This is the monthly record of those years—figures of an import excess again being printed in heavy type:

	1897.	1895.	1893.
Jan...	$42,597,865	$13,682,064	**$7,494,598**
Feb..	20,583,709	**2,333,247**	**12,770,254**
Mar...	10,930,803	**4,133,646**	**20,146,953**
Apr..	**23,673,620**	**3,494,317**	**17,140,355**
May..	**1,486,871**	**1,761,675**	**6,999,886**
June..	**11,989,987**	**6,694,214**	**4,247,975**
July..	17,429,209	**16,488,017**	**5,927,790**
Aug...	40,980,445	**15,131,324**	15,042,546
Sept..	62,111,786	**6,765,257**	25,726,186
Oct...	61,764,805	12,010,628	35,940,159
Nov...	64,317,674	23,967,764	42,396,335
Dec...	73,547,998	30,328,070	43,626,862

Now for the causes. During 1893, the turn in the monthly balance of trade was attributable both to a sharp decrease in exports and to a great increase in imports. Neither process was attributable to abnormally high commodity prices in this country. Prices, in fact, were low; but they were lower still in Europe. For this the reason was that industrial England particularly, and in a less degree the Continent, were suffering from the after-effects of the London Baring panic of 1890. The United States had at the time been little injured by that commercial setback; it was, therefore, not unnatural that Europe, in its prolonged spell of financial and industrial liquidation, should have bought less than usual from America and sold to us at lowered prices in constantly increasing quantities. From this double process came the months of "import excess" early in 1893.

The story of 1895 was different. Following our own panic of 1893, the United States had for more than a year indulged in close economy. With February, 1895, came a sudden change. The Belmont-Morgan syndicate artificially stopped gold exports from New York; the Treasury's depleted gold reserve was restored and protected; the government's credit was upheld. A burst of optimism followed in every market, the rise on the Stock Exchange being followed by rapid and continuous marking-up of prices for practically every commodity of production and manufacture, and for foreign goods as well. But the advance in commodity prices was very much overdone. European commodity markets did not rise with ours; therefore we lost the international trade. Farmers held back their wheat until Russia had satisfied the international demand; merchants had stocked up heavily, not only with domestic but with foreign goods, in the belief that old-time normal conditions had been restored. The result was a considerable shrinkage in the monthly export trade, and so abnormally rapid an expansion of our imports that the balance was again reversed.

Still different was the history of 1897. People who watched the foreign trade movement at that time were at no loss to explain it. The Dingley tariff, with its great increase in import duties, was to go into effect by July; seeing the drift of things, merchants made haste to get in foreign merchandise before the new duties were clapped on. In April, 1897, imports increased $42,000,000 over the year before; in May, $22,000,000, and in June, $28,000,000. This was a more violent expansion in imports than last month's; it was bound to reverse the monthly balance of trade.

It may be left to the observant reader to determine which of these three years, with their divergent conditions, the present season most resembles. What will perhaps be more immediately interesting is to show how the country, on each of the three occasions, once more restored its normal international balance. In 1893, a violent shock, with a season of prolonged and forced liquidation, was the course pursued; it was a thorny path. In 1895, no panic followed, but a general, rapid, and substantial reduction of prices on home commodity markets had the double effect of checking the abnormal importations and eventually restoring the normal export trade. The "import excess months" of 1897 had no ulterior result, except perhaps to curtail proportionately the import trade in the two or three months after the tariff law had gone into force. Before the autumn season had begun, the whole situation had been changed by the European harvest failure of 1897, the great American wheat crop, and the rise in our grain exports to unparalleled magnitude. Even in 1897 as a whole, excess of exports footed up $357,000,000; in 1898, it had risen to $620,000,000.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

Balbach, J. A. Cupid Intelligent. New York: Privately printed.
Bartholomew, J. G. A School Economic Atlas. Frowde.
Bostwick, A. E. The American Public Library. Appleton: $1.50 net.
Bower, B. M. The Happy Family. Dillingham. $1.25.
Buchanan, J. Works. Vol. XI, 1860-1868. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Calthrop, D. C. Tinsel and Gold. Dillingham. $1.50.
Capes, B. Why Did He Do It? Second ed. Brentano. $1.50.
Chambers, R. W. The Green Mouse. Appleton. $1.50.
Church, D. W. An Interview. Chicago: Berlin Carey Co. $1.
Coolidge, L. A. An Old-Fashioned Senator, Orville H. Platt. Putnam. $3 net.
Corporation Manual, 1910. Sixteenth edition. Edited by J. S. Parker. Corporation Manual Co.
Crane, A. M. A Search After Ultimate Truth. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1.60.
De Leon, T. C. John Holden, Unionist. Dillingham.

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Dewar, D. Indian Birds. Lane Co. $2 net.
Eggleston, G. C. Recollections of a Varied Life. Holt. $3 net.
Eldred, W. L. The Boys of Brookfield Academy. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1.50.
Elshemus, L. M. Thoughts at Night-time. The Dreamers Press. $1.25.
Engineering Index Annual for 1909. Engineering Magazine. $2.
Fenwick, F. De W. The Arch-Satirist. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1.50.
Greendlinger, L. Accounting Theory and Practice. Modern Business Series, vol. III. Alex. Hamilton Institute.
Hamilton, C. The Theory of the Theatre. Holt. $1.50 net.
Hardy's Far from the Madding Crowd. Harper. $1.25.
Harvey, W. B. Human Pearls in a Beautiful Setting. Melbourne: E. W. Cole.
Hazard, D. L. Results of Observations Made at the Coast and Geodetic Survey Magnetic Observatory at Sitka, Alaska, 1905-1906. Wash.: Gov. Ptg. Office.
Hilliers, A. The Master-Girl: A Romance. Putnam. $1.25 net.
Ironside, J. The Red Symbol. Boston: Little, Brown. $1.50.
Jaffray, R. The Two Knights of the Swan, Lohengrin, and Helyas. Putnam. $1.25 net.
Johnson, E. and A. The Game of the Golden Ball. Macaulay Co. $1.50.
Joyce, G. C. The Inspiration of Prophecy. Frowde. $1.40.
Kennan, G. Tent Life in Siberia. Putnam. $2.50 net.
Lee, V. Althea: Dialogues on Aspirations and Duties. Lane Co. $1.50 net.
Leffingwell, A. American Meat. T. E. Schulte. $1.25 net.
Liddell, T. H. China, Its Marvel and Mystery. Lane Co. $6.50 net.
London, J. Revolution. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Long, C. A. A Solution of Interests, Dependent Upon Money, etc. Aberdeen Pub. Co.
Lucretius. Selection from the Fifth Book. Edited, etc., by W. D. Lowe. Frowde. 50 cents.
Marlowe, C. Works. Edited by C. F. Tucker Brooke. Frowde. $2.50.
Maule, M. K. The Little Knight of the X Bar B. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1.50.
Moore, W. L. Descriptive Meteorology. Appleton.
Moorman, F. W. Robert Herrick, a Biographical and Critical Study. Lane Co. $5 net.
National Negro Conference Proceedings, 1909. New York: National Negro Conference Headquarters.
Niven, F. The Island Providence. Lane Co. $1.50.
O'Donnell, F. H. The History of the Irish Parliamentary Party, 1870-1890. 2 vols. Longmans. $5 net.
Ohnet, G. The Red Flag. Dillingham. $1.50.
Paetow, L. J. The Arts Course at Mediæval Universities, with Special Reference to Grammar and Rhetoric. Champaign, Ill.: Privately printed.
Pearson, E. L. The Library and the Librarian; a Selection of Articles from the Boston Evening Transcript and other Sources. Ed. by J. C. Dana and H. W. Kent. Woodstock, Vt.: Elm Tree Press. Sold by subscription.
Review of Historical Publications Relating to Canada. Vol. XIV, Publications of the Year 1909. Toronto: University Press.
Robinson, H. A Simple Explanation of Modern Banking Customs. Boston: Small, Maynard.
Rupp, F. A. Letters of a Physician to His Daughters. Philadelphia: Vir Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Scott, T. In Praise of Gardens. Baker & Taylor.
Skeat, W. W. Early English Proverbs. Frowde.
Slocum, C. E. The Ohio Country Between the Years 1783 and 1815. Putnam. $2 net.
Social Service Series. 6 vols. The Home as the School for Social Living, by H. F. Cope; The Churches Outside the Church, by G. W. Coleman; The Child in the Normal Home, by A. L. McCrimmon; The Church and the Labor Movement, by C. Stelzle; The Social Mission of the Church, by A. W. Wishart; The City; As It is and As It Is to Be, by C. R. Woodruff. Amer. Baptist Pub. Society. 10 cents net.
Stork, C. W. William Rowley. Pub. Univ. of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia.
Studies in American Social Conditions. Edited by R. H. Edwards: (1) The Liquor Problem; (2) The Negro Problem; (3) Immigration; (4) The Labor Problem; (5) Poverty; (6) Concentrated Wealth. Madison, Wis.: R. H. Edwards. 10 cents each.
Syrett, N. Olivia L. Carew. Lane Co. $1.50.
The Younger Choir. Intro. by E. Markham. Moods Pub. Co.
Tomlinson, E. T. Four Boys and a Fortune. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1.50.
Warner, A. Just Between Themselves. Boston: Little, Brown. $1.50.
Waterman, T. G. The Religious Practices of the Diegueño Indians. Univ. of California Pub. Berkeley.
Wheeler, H. F. B., and Broadley, A. M. The War in Wexford: An account of the Rebellion in the South of Ireland in 1798. Lane Co. $4 net.
Wilder, E., and Taylor, E. M. Self-Help and Self-Cure. Boston: Small, Maynard. 75 cents net.
Williamson, M. John, and Betty's History Visit. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1.25.

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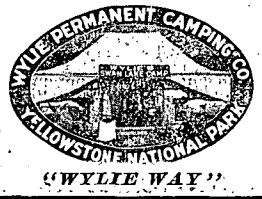

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